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A DICTATORSHIP OF BIG BUSINESS

In Chicago.—About a year ago there was organized in Chicago a group which took as its name the Citizens' Committee on Public Expenditures but which is more often referred to simply as the "citizens' committee." If the term is used on any assumption that the committee is a representative body, it is a misnomer because the committee, as judged by the portion of its membership whose names have been made public, is composed almost entirely, if not exclusively, of representatives of the large business interests and large taxpayers of the city. To the critical outsider it seems more likely that the term "citizens' committee" has been appropriated in order to clothe the group and its activities with some semblance of benignity. The press has at times referred to the organization as a committee of one hundred, but the active work appears to be carried on by a small group of about thirty members. Of what interests the known members are representative may be seen in the facts that not fewer than half are directors or other officers of banks (including the four largest in the city), approximately the same number are directors of other corporations, not fewer than nine are presidents or vice-presidents of railways and large manufacturing and merchandising establish-

ments, and at least seven are engaged in the real-estate business. A smaller number of other types of business interests are represented. No attempt seems to have been made to include in the membership representation of the host of other interests of the city, among them labor, education, welfare agencies, and local government. The assumption that representatives of the large tax-paying interests will represent the interests of the city at large is expressed by the chairman of the committee, Fred W. Sargent, president of the Chicago and North Western Railway, writing in a recent issue of the *Saturday Evening Post* under the caption "The Taxpayer Takes Charge." Mr. Sargent says:

Banks, insurance companies, the railroads, the great retail stores, mail-order houses, hotels, steel companies, and other manufacturing establishments have a stake in Chicago, and yet, curiously enough, they are now, for the first time in years, expressing a lively interest in the problems of municipal affairs. A smaller group, as spokesmen for these big tax-paying organizations *as well as the myriads of less-articulate taxpayers* [italics not in the original] are doing the work that has to be done.

In considering this group and its activities, the reader should keep in mind besides its demonstrated unrepresentativeness the fact that it is absolutely extra-legal. This fact is admitted in the first sentence of the article by Sargent from which quotation has just been made: he refers to the committee as an "extra-legal body." It seems impossible that a group thus without official or legal sanction should be permitted to exercise coercion, as has been done by the group in question.

While considering the activities and significance of the committee, we cannot do better than to quote a major portion of the enlightening editorial on this problem published in the February *Elementary School Journal*.

The composition of a citizens' committee which sets itself vigorously to the task of reducing public expenditures, as this committee has done, is a matter of no slight importance. In this connection the fact cannot be lost sight of that perhaps the most important function of government is the determination of those public services which government shall support, together with the determination of the relative support which the various public services shall receive. This responsibility rests squarely on the shoulders of public officials, and it is a responsibility which they can neither evade nor escape. It is entirely appropriate, indeed it is often desirable, that committees or councils of citizens repre-

senting the diverse interests of a community express the sense of the community with regard to the expenditure of public funds, both with respect to the gross amount to be spent and with respect to the public services which are of the most value. The case is entirely different, however, when the committee is an exclusive group representing only the large business interests of the community. And the case is still different when, as in Chicago, the committee is practically the spokesmen of the banking interests to whom the city must look for the purchase of its securities in order that it may carry on the functions of government and protect its credit. In such a case the committee practically usurps one of the major functions of government because it speaks with an authority and a sanction which public officials will rarely find the courage to disregard. That such measure of control is actually being exerted by the Chicago committee is evidenced by the following statement in the article by Mr. Sargent to which reference has been made: "But they [the banks] have shown that they positively will not lend money for any municipal function which does not have our active support. This has been a powerful lever in dealing with the really small number of recalcitrants in public office who still cling to a faith in a Santa Claus."

It may not be inappropriate to point out, too, that the existence of such extralegal committees finds no justification in American principles of political organization; in the existence of such committees there is a danger to representative institutions which cannot be ignored.

The Chicago committee has succeeded in compelling material reductions in gross public expenditures. It has, moreover, dictated without hesitation the maximum income which the several governmental agencies of the community may derive from taxation. In its scale of social values public education ranks low. In comparison with municipal government proper, the Chicago Board of Education has been forced to take a disproportionate reduction in its budget. The facts are as follows: The inequalities in the regular quadrennial assessment of 1927 were so glaring that the State Tax Commission ordered a reassessment, which was completed in 1930. Under the new assessment there was a reduction in evaluation. In making its budget for 1932, the City Council, without objection on the part of the citizens' committee, applied the maximum legal rate of taxation for municipal purposes to the estimated reduced valuation. The Board of Education followed the same procedure in making its budget, and, as a result of the reduced valuation, there was a necessary reduction in its levy of \$18,000,000. The citizens' committee, however, was not satisfied with this reduction. It demanded and succeeded in forcing an additional reduction of \$15,000,000 in the tax levy for school purposes. The net result was that, in comparison with the levies of the previous year, the Board of Education suffered a reduction of 28 per cent whereas the city and the county governments suffered reductions of 17 per cent and 4 per cent, respectively.

A comparison of the demands of the citizens' committee for budget reductions in 1933 shows clearly that the committee is determined to force on the Board of Education a much more drastic reduction than that forced on the City Council.

The legislature of Illinois has fixed a maximum tax rate for various municipal purposes and a maximum tax rate for various educational purposes. If these tax rates were applied to the assessed valuation, the maximum legal levy, as may be seen from the following tabulation, would be \$57,528,900 for the city government and \$72,935,000 for the Board of Education. The citizens' committee is demanding that the levy for the city be reduced to \$51,600,000 and that the levy for the board be reduced to \$48,000,000. In other words, the committee is demanding that in the case of the Board of Education the percentage of reduction below the maximum levy authorized by law be more than three times as great as in the case of the City Council.

	Maximum Legal Levy	Levy De- manded by Citizens' Committee	Percentage below Statutory Authorization
City.....	\$57,528,900	\$51,600,000	10.3
Board of Education..	72,935,000	48,000,000	34.2

It is obvious that, in forcing on the Board of Education a disproportionate reduction in its levies, the committee is assuming to determine the relative values of important public services in Chicago. It is difficult to believe that the committee, in placing a relatively low value on public education, is representing the sense of the community. Indeed, all the evidence points directly to the contrary. It is to be assumed that, when the legislature determined the maximum tax rates which could be applied to the support of the various public services, it gave expression to its estimate of the relative importance of these services. It would seem, therefore, that the committee is determined to substitute its own will for the expressed will of the legally chosen representatives of the people.

The same editorial closes with a citation of facts concerning the astonishing growth in recent years in the enrolment of high schools in Chicago and lays emphasis on the increased responsibilities of public education in accommodating the influx. The influx, the editorial insists, is due in large measure to the steady decrease in the employment of children in recent years and to the reduction in the employment of persons of all ages during the depression.

The fact is too patent for discussion that the depression and even the policies of industry itself are adding to the magnitude of the schools' burdens. Moreover, the schools have no choice but to meet the situation as best they can; society simply cannot permit the youth whom industry cannot absorb to grow up in idleness and to drift into crime. It is, indeed, difficult to understand the type of intelligence which cannot see that the school is the one institution which society can best employ to safeguard youth and its own future in times of severe economic and social readjustment.

An additional aspect of the situation in Chicago should be mentioned. It has been the boast of this self-styled "citizens' commit-

tee" that it would work for stabilization in the fiscal affairs of the municipality. Recently it became apparent that, for lack of funds, approximately fifteen millions of matured bonds and interest at *four* per cent would on January 1, 1933, be in default. In his article in the *Saturday Evening Post* already referred to, Mr. Sargent says:

The business men of the city are going to see that they [the bonds] are paid; and having taken the whole enterprise into their hands, they are going to see that it is rebuilt upon a more solid and workable basis. In my opinion the Chicago community, as a result of what is happening, is likely to be one of the first of the large cities of the United States to revive its credit and establish its operations as a municipality on a sound, economical basis within the means of its taxpayers.

Despite this boast, these bonds, by resolution of the City Council on December 17 last, were refunded with the interest rate fixed at *six* per cent—a rate higher by a full half than that on the original bonds. On its face this procedure is stabilization in reverse. Critics of the committee have pointed out, moreover, that the refunding at the higher rate was done through banks represented in the membership of the committee and that members connected with these banks could pose as models of civic righteousness and, at the same time, derive profit, as controllers of credit, from the embarrassment of the city administration. Whether or not a more direct connection might be traced, the known facts, as already stated, are: (1) The committee professes the aim to stabilize. (2) The bonds were refunded at the higher rate. (3) The banks refunding the bonds are represented on the membership of the committee.

The national scene.—Educators would not need to be greatly concerned over the dictatorship in Chicago if circumstances of the type described were restricted to that community. The disturbing fact is that such conditions are illustrative of what is taking place throughout the nation. This fact is acknowledged in an editorial published in a recent issue of the *Saturday Evening Post*, portions of which are quoted.

All over the country, business is taking a new and vital interest in government, especially in that of the municipalities, large and small. Never before have city expenditures and activities been so carefully scrutinized by citizens and taxpayer groups. The reason is immediate and obvious, but the results may prove valuable well beyond the present period of strain. If business men persist

in their present efforts, there is almost certain to be progress in furnishing decent government at reduced cost.

This is not written in eulogy of the business men who, together with other citizens, so long neglected their local governments. The interest being taken in municipal affairs constitutes an eleventh-hour repentance. Even now, there is not always the ideal civic unanimity which there should be among the business groups; bankers think chiefly of the maintenance of credit and interest, real-estate owners of keeping general property taxes down, department stores of avoiding local sales taxes, and industrialists of maintaining law and order.

Yet the larger tax-paying and business elements are coming together in city after city to a truly remarkable extent, and for the common purpose of at once weeding out waste and inefficiency while at the same time seeing that funds for essential services are made available. *There are cities in which taxpayer committees have become almost dictators* [italics not in the original]; the banks furnishing the city governments with funds only as the committees agree. It is not so much the banks which tell city officials what they can spend; rather, the larger taxpayers are those who say the word.

As an illustration of the operation in another community than Chicago of this sinister force in American life and government, we may cite the experience in New York. We do so in the words of Charles J. Hendley, writing in the *American Teacher*:

We have in New York a self-appointed citizens' budget commission that is now gloating over its victory in forcing the politicians to agree to this special session of the legislature [called by Herbert H. Lehman, at the time governor-elect]. This so-called commission is composed of bankers, real-estate operators, and representatives of the public utilities. We have identified their most prominent and active members and found that out of a list of forty of them, thirty represent twenty-one leading banks, twenty-odd principal mortgage companies, and over thirty miscellaneous real-estate companies. The public utilities are represented through the banks. This commission has employed experts to "educate" public opinion and to present its demands to the politicians. Probably numerous other communities in the country have similar citizens' committees making drives for retrenchment in public service.

The New York bankers are in an especially strategic position. On the one hand, as members of the Citizens' Budget Commission they can pose as exemplars of civic virtue and exploit the embarrassment that the Tammany politicians experience as a result of the Seabury revelations, and on the other hand, as monopolizers of credit they can dictate terms to an improvident city administration. To oppose their dictatorship appears, superficially, to be aiding and abetting the political racketeers.

In his recent book, *A New Deal*, Stuart Chase appraises three proposals for placing our economic order on a basis promotive of

human welfare. Our interest here is in only one of these proposals, what he terms the "dictatorship of Big Business." Chase discards the proposal as impracticable and undesirable. The alarming fact is that this dictatorship disapproved by Chase is on the way—if it has not already been firmly installed. This extra-legal Fascism is contrary to the best American principles, and all who are loyal to these principles must do their utmost to check it and stamp it out. While we would not condone waste and mismanagement in municipal affairs, it would be disastrous to combat one evil with another that is much worse. Doubtless, also, schools in some quarters will need to retrench, but the public should not permit them to be coerced into retrenchment to the point of paralysis by extra-legal organizations interested solely in tax reduction and blind to the meaning of popular education in the American program.

THE CITIZENS' CONFERENCE ON THE CRISIS IN EDUCATION

Strikingly different, in the representativeness of its membership and attitude toward retrenchment in education, from the self-styled "citizens' committees" referred to in the foregoing pages was the Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education called early in January by President Hoover. The conference drew its membership from education, manufacturing, farming, labor, business, and economics. The constructive character of its deliberations and conclusions may be judged from the following brief statement published in the *Chicago Daily News*, a statement which was based on a report prepared by President Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago, who was one of the leaders in the conference. A *Report of Proceedings* prepared by the Agenda Committee of the conference may be secured on request from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. A complete report of the proceedings—including statements presented by the representatives of the five co-operating organizations, the complete reports of the six subcommittees, and some of the significant documents presented to the conference—is being published, and copies may be secured for twenty-five cents each from the same organization.

Maintenance of the educational system of the country unimpaired in the present economic emergency was insisted on by the Citizens' Conference on the

Crisis in Education held at the call of President Hoover at Washington, D.C., January 5 and 6, according to the report made today by President Robert M. Hutchins of the University of Chicago, who was a member of the conference.

Outstanding among the recommendations adopted by the conference, of which Dr. Ray Lyman Wilbur, secretary of the Department of Interior, was chairman, was the one which declared that major wastes in education should be overcome through the elimination of control and interference by politicians, political appointments, and political corruption.

Other important recommendations were that local governments and local school districts should be reorganized and consolidated. Also the administrative control of the schools should be centralized in the superintendents.

The conference also declared that, when the states are unable to do so, the federal government must assume the responsibility of assuring adequate public education to those states in whatever manner may be required.

Dr. Hutchins reported that there was heated opposition to the adoption of the resolution which declared that "immediate efforts must be made to raise the general level of commodity prices. If these efforts cannot be made or do not succeed, the alternative is the reduction in the face value of debts, public and private."

The conference went on record as opposed to the shortening of the school year below that existing previous to the depression, "because such action will be a limitation upon the educational opportunities of the children, which in the long run will be neither economically nor educationally profitable."

President Hoover at the opening of the meeting said: "Our nation faces the acute responsibility of providing a right of way for the American child." He urged that the conference should bear in mind that the proper care and training of our children is more important than any other process that is carried on by the government.

Regret was expressed that the United States Office of Education had been compelled to discontinue its study of school finance and also that the drastic reductions in budgets for public-school education have been made. The conference called attention to the fact that 4,500 school districts have closed their schools entirely.

The recommended action of the conference on "the raising of the general level of commodity prices and the correction of serious maladjustments, to increase the volume of income and purchasing power" grew out of the revelations of representatives of the agricultural industry that the situation is so serious with the farmers that it would be necessary to restore the economic capacity of the farmers before they will be able to do their part in behalf of education.

President Hutchins reported that Frank Morrison of the American Federation of Labor presented "a significant statement for that organization." In substance it said "that the judicious use of available resources and the use of federal credit will enable the country to weather the emergency without such injury to our children as would result from lowered educational standards."

The conference was made up of representatives of the following groups: educational, manufacturing, farming, labor, business, and economists.

TOWARD A NEW COLLEGE

Among releases for publication after the January meeting of the University of Chicago's Board of Trustees was the following brief and modest statement.

In order to permit the extension of the benefits of the new educational plan of the University of Chicago to students in the University High School, the last two years of that School have been placed under the jurisdiction of the College. Students in these years of the High School will receive instruction from the College faculty, which beginning next fall will be augmented by the addition of certain members of the faculty of the High School.

As heretofore, registration in the High School will be limited to day pupils. Graduates of other high schools will continue to enter the College as Freshmen on the usual basis.

To the readers of President Hutchins' article "The American System of Education," published in the February *School Review*, this change will appear to be a step toward the reorganization which he proposed, a reorganization which would include a six-year elementary school, a secondary school of "three or four years," another unit of the same length above this secondary school, and at the top of this structure the university. The integration of the last two years of the University High School with the present College (corresponding in length with the typical junior-college unit) which seems to be contemplated in this action will provide what will be for most students traversing both periods a four-year college underlying the University proper.

The school situation of the country is at a stage where a satisfactory development of this downward extension of the University's College can exercise a signal influence on the organization of school systems and higher institutions. About three-fourths of the large number of local public junior colleges are housed with high schools. In most of the remaining fourth the junior colleges are housed in buildings near at hand. At the same time, out of respect for tradition and standards of accrediting agencies, those in charge are typically trying to keep the high school and the junior college apart. By demonstrating the feasibility of a college that integrates two

levels of education which are essentially one, the University of Chicago would provide school authorities with what will appeal to them as a logical solution of a perplexing problem.

To be sure, instances of school systems operating college units astride of the arbitrary line of division between the high school and the college have preceded this development at the University of Chicago. These efforts at organizational integration were briefly described in the *School Review* for June, 1932, and will be more fully detailed in Monograph No. 5 of the report of the National Survey of Secondary Education. The best known development is at Pasadena, California, and others are to be found at Ventura, Compton, and Salinas in the same state, at Moberly, Missouri, and at Hillsboro, Texas. A description, prepared by the principal and superintendent, O. Scott Thompson, of the external arrangement of the newest of these reorganizations, the one at Compton, was published in the January *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*.

In these institutions it has been impossible, partly on account of the standards of accrediting agencies, to effect all desirable development and integration of the curriculum. The freedom of an institution like the University of Chicago should make it possible to add meaning to this period of education. It seems entirely appropriate to look forward to the unit that will emerge from this integration as the new college. The history of collegiate education in this country, including the fact of the depression into high-school years of the college curriculum, also provides ample justification for dropping the qualification "junior" from the names of such institutions and calling them simply "colleges." This new period of college education would correspond in level with the later years of the secondary schools in the countries of continental Europe, which directly underlie their universities.

RECENT SOCIAL TRENDS IN THE UNITED STATES

A two-volume report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends has recently been published. It will be recalled that the committee, appointed in September, 1929, was composed of the following persons:

Wesley C. Mitchell, *Chairman*, Professor of Economics, Columbia University

William F. Ogburn, *Director of Research*, Professor of Sociology, University of Chicago

Charles E. Merriam, Professor and Chairman of the Department of Political Science, University of Chicago

Howard W. Odum, Director of the Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina

Alice Hamilton, Harvard School of Public Health, Boston

Shelby M. Harrison, General Director of the Russell Sage Foundation, New York

Edward Eyre Hunt, *Executive Secretary*

The committee drew on the help of other specialists and, with the co-operation of hundreds of collaborators, has carried to completion the most ambitious attempt ever made to ascertain the trends of a nation's life and culture. The current publication, entitled *Recent Social Trends in the United States*, is to be followed by a series of thirteen monographs, which will report the detailed facts supplying the bases for this briefer treatment.

The report is organized into four parts. The first of these deals with problems of physical heritage, with minerals and power and land. The second part is concerned with problems of biological heritage and has to do with the quantity and quality of the population. The third part is given over to problems of the social heritage and includes attention to inventions and economic organizations, social organizations and social habits, and ameliorative institutions and government. The fourth and final part discusses policy and problems.

Here is a vast store of well-organized, significant social information. Educators will have at least three types of interest in it: (1) They will be interested in the whole body of evidence because of the light it throws on the society they are undertaking to serve in the schools of which they have charge. (2) They will rely on it as a source of materials of instruction in courses in the social studies and in related fields. Use of the materials in this way will be chiefly in secondary and higher schools. (3) They will have particular interest in the chapter on education. This chapter was prepared by Charles H. Judd, Dean of the School of Education at the University of Chicago. This chapter discloses trends during the last thirty or forty years in the following (among others) phases of the school sit-

uation: the curriculum, organization, special types of schools, the professional training and the supply of teachers, supervision, methods of teaching, material equipment, federal participation in education, health education, finance, and scientific studies of education. We shall not attempt to summarize a chapter that is itself a summary of a much longer report. Instead, we illustrate the evidence presented by quoting portions of the section dealing with the curriculum of the secondary school.

In 1890 when the United States Bureau of Education, now known as the United States Office of Education, first began to collect statistics with regard to secondary schools the courses offered in the public schools of this grade were classified under nine headings, namely, Latin, French, German, Greek, algebra, geometry, physics, chemistry, and history. Table [I] shows the number of

TABLE I
SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION OFFERED IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS, 1890-1928*

Year	Number of Subjects	Year	Number of Subjects
1890.....	9	1922.....	43
1900.....	18	1928.....	47
1910.....	23		

* U. S. Office of Education, *Biennial Survey of Education*, 1926-1928, pp. 1057-58.

headings used in certain subsequent years for which data are available. The facts are even more impressive than the figures in this table indicate because the headings used in 1890, such as Latin and algebra, refer to single subjects, while some of those used later cover a variety of subjects; manual training, for example, includes a number of manual arts—woodwork, machine shop, printing, etc.

Table [II] is a general table which shows the percentages of pupils in public secondary schools who were enrolled in certain subjects in various years. All subjects are included in which the registrations reached at least 5 per cent in any of the years reported. In addition, Greek and English history are included, although the registrations in these subjects were less than 5 per cent, so as to facilitate a study of the trends in the subjects taught in 1890.

If one examines the statistics of registration in the subjects taught in 1890, one finds that, with the single exception of French, the traditional subjects have receded in relative importance in competition with the new subjects. The relative decline in the classics and mathematics, especially since the World War, is marked. There have been notable increases in practical and vocational subjects as well as in drawing and art. There has also been an increase in the number of sciences, both natural and social.

The facts reported in Table [II] show in concrete detail the truth of the statement that a change has been taking place in the view held by the American people regarding the scope of education. In 1890 and the years immediately

TABLE II
PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS ENROLLED IN
CERTAIN SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION, 1890-1928*

Subject	1890	1900	1910†	1922	1928
Latin.....	34.7	50.6	49.1	27.5	22.0
French.....	5.8	7.8	9.9	15.5	14.0
German.....	10.5	14.3	23.7	7	1.8
Spanish.....			.7	11.3	9.4
Greek.....	3.1	2.9	.8	.1	.1
Algebra.....	45.4	56.3	56.9	40.2	35.2
Geometry.....	21.3	27.4	30.9	22.7	19.8
Physics.....	22.2	19.0	14.6	8.9	6.9
Chemistry.....	10.1	7.7	6.9	7.4	7.1
Physical geography.....		23.4	19.3	4.3	2.7
Zoölogy.....			8.0	1.5	.8
Botany.....			16.8	3.8	1.6
Biology.....				8.8	13.6
Physiology.....		27.4	15.3	5.1	2.7
Hygiene and sanitation.....				6.1	7.8
General science.....				18.3	17.5
Rhetoric.....		38.5	57.1	78.6	93.1
English literature.....		42.1	57.1		
American history.....	27.3	38.2	55.0	15.3	17.9
English history.....				2.9	.9
Ancient history.....				17.2	10.4
Medieval and modern history.....				15.4	11.3
World-history.....					6.1
Civil government.....		21.7	15.6	19.3	6.7
Community civics.....					13.4
Economics.....				4.8	5.1
Agriculture.....			4.7	5.1	3.7
Home economics.....			3.8	14.3	16.5
Manual training.....				10.5	12.5
Drawing and art.....				14.8	18.6
Music.....				25.3	26.0
Arithmetic.....				10.5	2.4
Bookkeeping.....				12.6	10.7
Shorthand.....				8.9	8.7
Typewriting.....				13.1	15.2
Commercial arithmetic.....				1.5	7.0

* *Biennial Survey of Education, 1926-1928*, pp. 1057-58.

† Beginning with 1910, the percentages of pupils in each subject are based on the number of pupils in the schools reporting by subject. The percentages for earlier years are based on the total number of pupils in the schools reporting.

following, secondary education was looked upon as the privilege of pupils who were preparing to enter the professions. In 1928 secondary education was much more generally thought of as a preparation for the manifold activities of ordinary life.

Expansion of the curriculum of secondary schools is not peculiar to the United States, although one motive for expansion, the diversity of interests of pupils, is stronger in this country than elsewhere because the percentage of adolescents attending secondary schools is very much larger than is the corresponding percentage in any other country. Germany has in recent years greatly increased the number and variety of her secondary schools. The new schools offer a wide range of scientific and practical courses not included in the traditional curriculum of the older schools. An English commission recently recommended a series of extensions of secondary education in order to provide for a part of the adolescent population which heretofore has not enjoyed the privileges of education above the elementary level. Similar extensions of secondary education appear in other countries. It is clear that American secondary schools have followed a course now common to all democratic educational systems in attempting to provide through an expanded curriculum wider opportunities for the youth of the country.

SCHOOLS IN THE PRESENT EMERGENCY

This journal endeavors to deal with perennial concerns of the schools and also with their more timely issues. Manifestly, timeliness just now requires that consideration be given to educational problems of the current economic recession. This recognition of the immediate situation is accorded in the present issue by the first two items ("A Dictatorship of Big Business" and "The Citizens' Conference on the Crisis in Education") in this section—"Educational News and Editorial Comment"—and by the first two articles which follow dealing with aspects of the high-school situation in Michigan and in Illinois. Among items previously published having to do with the educational emergency are President Hutchins' article, "The American Educational System," appearing in the February issue, and writings in this section with the following captions: "Pupil Aid in Minneapolis," "Educational Opportunities for the Unemployed," "Private Boarding Schools Experience Some Losses in Enrolments," "Timely Discussions of Educational Problems of the Depression," and "Turning the Current Distress to Advantage." The items include descriptions of the effects of the depression, expositions of what schools and systems are doing to meet the emergency, and considerations of proposals of how best to retrench or otherwise face the difficulties of the period.

HIGH SCHOOLS OF MICHIGAN IN THE DEPRESSION

GEORGE E. CARROTHERS
University of Michigan

THE CHANGING CONDITIONS

All schools, from the elementary grades through the high school and the university, have felt the depression and have responded to the situation. The necessity for curtailment has probably been more serious in rural and village schools than in the larger high schools, yet the more than two hundred reports received from the Michigan high schools belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools—these being ordinarily the larger high schools—show definite and even serious retrenchment and tightening-up in every phase of school work. Enrolments and classes are larger; recitation periods are shorter; school days are longer; the number of classes handled a day by each teacher has increased; pupil-teacher ratio is greater; school years are shorter; salaries are lower; many subjects have been dropped; extra-curriculum activities have been omitted in many schools; teachers and pupils are working harder; and parents are becoming concerned about the outcome. In many schools and communities the resulting nervous tension has almost reached the breaking point.

INCREASED ENROLMENTS AND DECREASED STAFFS

Enrolments in 207 of these larger high schools increased from 128,097 for the school year 1931-32 to 137,288 for the school year 1932-33, an increase of 7 per cent despite the fact that the teaching force has decreased 3 per cent. Classes of forty pupils were seldom reported before 1931-32. For the school year 1932-33 secondary-school classes running up to sixty-five, seventy, and seventy-five pupils are reported. Ordinarily teachers handle four or five classes a day. This year the number teaching only four classes a day has shown a decided decrease; the number teaching five or more classes, a decided in-

crease. Six classes a day has long been considered such a heavy load that only mature, experienced teachers should attempt to teach that number. This year there has been an increase of 13 per cent in the number of teachers handling this number of classes, and even inexperienced teachers have been assigned six classes a day. Still more alarming has been the increase of 68 per cent in the number of teachers handling seven classes a day.

The increase in the total school enrolment combined with the decrease in the teaching staff has resulted in a large increase in the number of pupils handled daily by each teacher. Formerly 141-50 pupils a day was considered a teaching load. This year the number of teachers teaching 141-50 pupils a day has increased 9 per cent. The number teaching 151-60 pupils a day has increased 13 per cent, and the number of teachers handling more than 160 pupils daily has increased 31 per cent. Some teachers are handling 200-300 different pupils in every school day. Is it any wonder that there is little opportunity for pupil-teacher acquaintance and little time for the explanation of difficulties and the solving of individual problems? Teachers have viewed with great concern the establishing of such unwholesome educational conditions. Yet they have willingly accepted the extra burdens since children are far better off in even a crowded school than running the streets. Through sheer necessity lock step and mass production have become almost the order of the day. This condition is far from ideal, but it is apparently necessary for the present.

In many communities scores of high-school graduates would like to continue their education, but they find it impossible at present to go to college. Securing employment is out of the question, and loafing around the village store or poolroom is not only unprofitable but frequently highly detrimental. Many of these young men and young women are clamoring for postgraduate work in local high schools. Since the laws of Michigan permit pupils to continue in school without paying tuition until they are twenty-one years of age, many secondary-school graduates are taking a fifth or even a sixth year of high-school work. Graduates of former years who have had a year or two in college, and in some instances even college graduates, are back in the secondary schools as postgraduate stu-

dents. The total number of postgraduate students in all these North Central secondary schools in Michigan increased this year 320 per cent over the year 1931-32. This enrolment adds another burden to the already heavy load of the teachers.

Information is not available concerning all the different subjects desired by these returning students, but it has been observed on several occasions that typewriting, cooking, sewing, bookkeeping, shop work of various sorts, and similar practical courses have enrolled postgraduate students. If it should be discovered that a considerable proportion of the returning students are enrolled in non-academic courses, the situation ought to receive serious attention. In many school districts the tendency in the time of emergency has been to consider dropping first these non-academic subjects. Such a procedure may in the end be a grave mistake.

EMERGENCY COLLEGES

In a considerable number of communities emergency or "depression" colleges are being opened. Unemployed college graduates, some of whom have Masters' or even Doctors' degrees, have gathered together the non-college-going high-school graduates and have started teaching them college work. Some of these college "professors" are unemployed engineers, unassigned preachers, local doctors of medicine, "realtors," and others who have more time than money and who are anxious to trade a rather large amount of the former for a reasonable amount of the latter. Some are even teaching for the love of the work, and at least one man known to the writer, a former president of a college, is donating his full time to the cause of education. He appears to be doing well a much-needed work.

NUMBER OF NEW TEACHERS EMPLOYED

The North Central Association secondary schools in Michigan employ approximately 70 per cent of all secondary-school teachers in the state. These schools enrol 74 per cent of all the secondary-school pupils. During 1930-31 these schools employed 5,374 teachers, of whom 801 were "new" teachers. In 1931-32 these schools employed 5,429 teachers, of whom 502 were new. In 1932-33 there are 5,307 teachers in the North Central Association high schools of Michigan, of whom 327 are new to their present systems. If it is

assumed that the other high schools in the state needed and employed the same proportionate number of new teachers, the total number needed for all accredited schools of the state during each of these three years was as follows: 1,144 for 1930-31; 717 for 1931-32; 467 for 1932-33.

These figures are of special interest when compared with the number of teachers trained for secondary-school teaching by the four state teachers' colleges, the private colleges in the state, the Michigan State College, and the University of Michigan. The figures shown in Table I were obtained from an unpublished study of teach-

TABLE I
APPROXIMATE NUMBER OF GRADUATES TRAINED FOR TEACHING IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS BY THE DIFFERENT COLLEGES IN MICHIGAN
IN SCHOOL YEARS 1929-30, 1930-31, AND 1931-32

INSTITUTION	NUMBER OF GRADUATES TRAINED FOR SECONDARY TEACHING		
	1929-30	1930-31	1931-32
University of Michigan.....	264	275	260
Michigan State College.....	143	155	103
Detroit Teachers College.....	279	292	80
State teachers' colleges.....	700	750	600
Private colleges.....	557	617	252
Total.....	1,943	2,089	1,295

er supply and demand just completed by E. C. Elliott, a graduate student in the School of Education of the University of Michigan, under the direction of Professor Arthur B. Moehlman.

The expression "new teacher," as used in the preceding paragraphs, means a teacher new to the particular system in the year reported. Many of these teachers have had previous experience. In fact, only 92, or 28 per cent, of the 327 "new teachers" employed in 1932-33 in the 207 North Central Association schools under investigation were without experience. If the same ratio holds for all high schools in the state for this year and for other years, it means that only 320 of the 1,144 new teachers employed in 1930-31 were inexperienced graduates of the teacher-training schools. Of the 717 employed in 1931-32, 201 were inexperienced, and for 1932-33, 131

of the 467 were without experience. These and other interesting figures are given in Table II in condensed form. It is believed that all the figures given are substantially correct. If it is assumed that the number of new teachers trained outside of Michigan about equals the number of teachers trained in Michigan who secured positions in other states and that all the new teachers employed in the autumn of 1932 were taken from the classes graduated in 1931-32, it is apparent that, of the teachers trained for secondary-school

TABLE II

NUMBER OF TEACHERS IN THE 600 ACCREDITED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MICHIGAN AND NUMBER OF TEACHERS TRAINED BY MICHIGAN COLLEGES IN SCHOOL YEARS 1930-31 AND 1931-32

	1930-31	1931-32
1. Total number of teachers*	7,711	7,766
2. Number of graduates of Michigan colleges†	2,089	1,295
3. Number of inexperienced teachers employed‡	320	201
4. Percentage that Item 3 is of Item 2 . . .	15	17

* Taken from the annual reports of the Bureau of Co-operation with Educational Institutions, University of Michigan.

† Taken from unpublished study by E. C. Elliott, graduate student in the School of Education, University of Michigan.

‡ Taken from reports concerning teaching staffs made by high-school principals in October, 1932, to the University of Michigan for accrediting purposes.

teaching by colleges in Michigan, less than one-fifth are able to secure positions each year.

REDUCTIONS IN SALARIES

During the time that teachers have been called on to accept extra classes, larger numbers of pupils, shorter class periods, more teaching subjects and more preparations, longer school days, and numerous other extra duties, they have had to accept marked decreases in salary. School budgets were decreased sharply in 1931-32 and still more sharply for the school year 1932-33. In some school systems salary reductions of 25-40 per cent have been made. For 1932-33 the average decrease for women in the North Central Association high schools under investigation is 10.5 per cent and for men 12.6 per cent. Reductions in salary have added to the strain under which

teachers are working, but the added burden has apparently been accepted cheerfully and willingly by the large majority of the profession.

SUBJECTS DROPPED FROM THE PROGRAMS

In the tightening-up of school programs a considerable number of subjects have had to be eliminated temporarily. The subject fields and the number of schools concerned are shown in Table III.

TABLE III

SUBJECT FIELDS IN WHICH COURSES WERE DROPPED IN 207 NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN MICHIGAN IN FIRST SEMESTER OF SCHOOL YEAR 1932-33

Subject Field	Number of Schools Dropping Subject	Remarks
Language.....	32	15, or 47 per cent, of courses dropped were advanced Latin. Others were Latin I, French, German, Spanish.
Commercial subjects.....	23	Shorthand, bookkeeping, commercial geography, and law were mentioned 3-5 times each.
Social studies.....	16	11, or 69 per cent, of these courses were ancient and European history.
English.....	15	Special courses, such as play production, dramatics, public speaking, debating, journalism.
Home economics.....	13
Manual training.....	11	7 of these were manual training. Others were mechanical drawing, printing, etc.
Miscellaneous.....	27	Art, mathematics, science, physical education, music, etc.

These figures represent the 207 North Central Association secondary schools in Michigan under investigation. The data given in the table are self-explanatory and need no further comment. In connection with the assembling of these data it was of interest to note that 131 of the 207 schools have not eliminated any subjects even though they have had to combine classes and reduce the number of teaching sections.

THE PROBABLE EFFECTS

It is hoped that, in reading this account of the ways in which schools have attempted to do their part in meeting the present emergency conditions, no one will get the impression that the work being

done today is of as high a quality as that done under the more favorable conditions of former years. The complete significance of the changed, distorted, and diluted outcome may not be fully realized for many years. The little irritations and annoyances constantly occurring in crowded schools cannot be so easily and so satisfactorily adjusted as formerly. These may continue and even affect other pupils in future years without being clearly noticeable on the surface. Pupils being graduated may even possess some of the more serious handicaps in citizenship habits and attitudes. Yet the teaching staff may be powerless under present circumstances to do anything about it.

Lack of proper adjustment is often the most noticeable among superior pupils. The less capable and more docile do not find it so difficult to accept crowded, unfavorable conditions as do the superior group. When interruptions become so great that good work is impossible or when the slower pupils are unable to obtain help and guidance from teachers, they merely lapse into a state of unfruitful passivity. Not so with the brighter pupils! Their unusual abilities make them the greatest losers under present circumstances. Additional classes, excessive pupil-teacher ratios, longer school days, and similarly increased loads for teachers almost preclude the possibility of providing normal outlets for the creative energies of superior pupils.

THE DEMAND AND SUPPLY OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN ILLINOIS IN 1932-33

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The number of new teachers employed for the school year 1932-33 in 561 of the 595 accredited public high schools in Illinois outside the city of Chicago and the sources from which these new teachers came are shown in Table I. The high schools have been classified on the basis of enrolment. The total number of teachers is 6,287. This number does not include principals, supervisors, or part-time teachers. Of this total, 695, or 11 per cent, are new to their present positions. This percentage of turnover is materially smaller than usual. Williams found for the ten-year period ending with the school year 1930-31 an average turnover of approximately 25 per cent.¹ The lowest percentage, 18.7, was for the last year of the period studied by Williams.

Of the 695 new teachers, 195 taught last year in accredited high schools in Illinois. This fact means that the net demand for new teachers in this group of accredited public high schools was 500. If all secondary schools in the state were included, this number would be increased, but probably not beyond 600. The net demand for 500 teachers was met as follows: 112 from outside the state, 74 from other types of schools in Illinois, and 314 who were not employed as teachers last year. A total of 236 new teachers have had no previous teaching experience.

In an effort to secure an estimate of the supply of teachers for high schools, a letter was addressed to the presidents of teachers' colleges, liberal-arts colleges, universities, and other teacher-training institutions in the state asking for their best estimate of the number of the members of their classes of 1932, including graduates at the

¹ Lewis W. Williams, "Turnover among High-School Teachers in Illinois," *School Review*, XL (June, 1932), 418.

end of the summer session, who desired to secure teaching positions in secondary schools. Although replies were not received from all the institutions addressed, it appears that between January 1 and September 1, 1932, at least two thousand young men and women who desired to teach in high school graduated from these teacher-training institutions. An appreciable number of this group taught last year

TABLE I

SOURCES OF NEW TEACHERS IN 561 ACCREDITED PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS IN ILLINOIS OUTSIDE THE CITY OF CHICAGO IN 1932-33*

	TEACHERS IN ENROLMENT GROUP												Total	
	I (Less than 100 Pupils)		II (100-299 Pupils)		III (300-499 Pupils)		IV (500-999 Pupils)		V (1,000 or More Pupils)					
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent		
Total number of teachers...	828	1,650	814	917	2,078	6,287		
New teachers from Illinois:														
Accredited high schools...	53	27	87	32	24	28	14	22	17	25	195	28		
Unaccredited high schools	2	1	2	†	1	1	0	0	2	3	7	1		
Elementary schools or junior high schools...	10	5	5	2	7	8	5	8	10	14	37	5		
Private schools.....	1	†	0	0	2	2	3	5	7	10	13	2		
Colleges.....	1	†	7	3	3	3	4	6	2	3	17	3		
Not teaching last year....	104	52	138	50	33	38	23	35	16	23	314	45		
Total from Illinois.....	171	86	230	87	70	80	49	76	54	78	583	84		
New teachers from other states.....	29	15	35	13	17	20	16	25	15	22	112	16		
All new teachers.....	200	24‡	274	17‡	87	11‡	65	7‡	69	3‡	605	11‡		
Teachers with no experience	76	38	108	39	23	26	17	26	13	17	236	34		
Graduates of local high schools:														
New teachers.....	16	8	40	15	22	25	18	28	22	32	118	17		
All teachers.....	61	7	187	11	122	15	124	14	257	12	751	12		

* Data taken from the annual report submitted to the high-school visitor of the University of Illinois. Data were available for 561 of the 595 accredited public high schools.

† Less than 1 per cent.

‡ Based on total number of teachers.

and completed the requirements for the baccalaureate degree during the summer session. Other graduates resided outside the state, and probably still others were not sufficiently well qualified to deserve teaching positions. Such reductions would be at least partially compensated for by the number of graduates of previous years who were unable to secure teaching positions during the year 1931-32 and by residents of Illinois graduating from institutions outside the state. It seems likely that fifteen hundred would be a conservative estimate

of the net supply of high-school teachers turned out by teacher-training institutions in Illinois between January 1 and September 1, 1932. After this estimate was made, a letter from A. L. Whittenberg, secretary of the Illinois State Examining Board, stated that between July 1, 1931, and June 30, 1932, 1,470 high-school certificates were issued on college credentials. Since it is likely that a considerable number of graduates with the necessary credentials did not apply for high-school certificates, the letter from Mr. Whittenberg confirms the writer's estimate as being conservative.

Since the total net demand for teachers in secondary schools in Illinois probably did not exceed six hundred, the teacher-training institutions of the state turned out a supply more than twice as large as the demand. Furthermore, when the facts concerning the sources of the new teachers are considered, it appears that not more than one out of five of the available 1932 supply of high-school teachers secured a position. Incidentally, it may be noted that four of the five state teachers' colleges reported a total of nearly four hundred graduates and that the estimated number of prospective secondary-school teachers graduating from the University of Illinois was six hundred.

COMPARISON OF VERBAL ACCOMPANIMENTS TO FILMS

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Demonstrations of talking pictures which have been conducted in Washington¹ and at prominent universities² throughout the country have been designed to induce educators to use talking pictures. By placing emphasis on the interest appeal of such pictures, these demonstrations have implied that the talking picture is superior to other forms of instruction, especially instruction by silent motion pictures. Such demonstrations have not included comparisons of the effectiveness of the talking picture with that of other instructional aids. However, it is to the advantage of both educators and picture producers to know whether the claims made for talking pictures are valid.

In order to determine the relative values of talking and silent pictures, the writer conducted a series of experiments in the Deerfield-Shields Township High School, Highland Park, Illinois, during the spring of 1932. Analyses and comparisons were made of the test results achieved by equivalent groups after different types of presentation. The groups were composed of ninth-grade classes in general science and eleventh- and twelfth-grade classes in physics. All the pupils were grouped on the basis of their scores on the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability. Group M was composed of forty-eight pupils in general science, with a median intelligence quotient of 102.5 and a range of 73-134. Group W, the equivalent group in general science, had a median intelligence quotient of 100.5 and a range of

¹ Bess Goodykoontz and Others, *Sound Motion Pictures as a Factor in Education: Report of the Sound Motion Picture Demonstration Held at George Washington University, Washington, D.C., July 7-10, 1931, under the Direction of a Committee of Experts Chosen by the Office of Education in the Department of the Interior.* New York: National Theatre Supply Co. Pp. 12.

² William Lewin, "Teachers Hail the Talkies," *Educational Screen*, VIII (December, 1929), 295-96.

75-139. Each of the physics classes, Groups E-2 and E-5, contained twenty-two pupils and had a median intelligence quotient of 113.5. The ranges of the intelligence quotients were 91-136 and 94-134, respectively. In fact, not only were these physics classes mentally equivalent, but they were made up of matched pairs on the basis of sex, intelligence quotient, and score on the Sangren and Marburger Initial Test in Physics. The following methods of presentation were used:

1. Presentation of a silent film without captions or oral comments of any kind.
2. Presentation of a silent film without captions but with oral comments by the teacher.
3. Presentation of a silent film with captions.
4. Presentation of a silent film with captions and with oral comments by the teacher.
5. Presentation of a talking picture.

As two equivalent groups were formed and as two types of presentation were given in alternate order to these groups, it was possible to check on the reliability of the procedure, to make comparisons between two methods of presentation, and to verify the conclusions reached from one set of comparisons by those of another set under almost identical conditions. For example, the picture "Wizardry of Wireless"¹ was shown to Group E-5 without comments by the teacher and to Group E-2 with comments. These procedures have been referred to above as presentation of a silent film with captions (Method 3) and presentation of a silent film with captions and with oral comments by the teacher (Method 4). The results from these procedures were checked by those from a second picture, "Power Transformers"; that is, Group E-5 saw the second picture with captions and also heard the teacher's comments (Method 4), while Group E-2 saw the picture without hearing such comments (Method 3).

In order that the effectiveness of the presentation of a silent film without captions or oral comments of any kind (Method 1) might be determined, a group of twenty-three pupils in general science,

¹ All the films used are two reels in length and are produced by the General Electric Company.

Group R, were shown "The Romance of Power" without its regular sound accompaniment and without oral comment by the teacher other than a statement of the purpose of this unusual procedure and a plea for co-operation in the enterprise. This co-operation was received, since the picture was interesting and comprehensible without comments or sound. Many of the pupils were interested to see how much of the picture they could understand without the continuity. After the picture had been shown, a test was given. The papers were collected, scored, and the results recorded. These scores were used for comparisons with the scores of two equivalent groups who were shown the same picture but with the addition of the teacher's comments in one case and with the addition of the regular sound accompaniment in the other.

The results of the experiments with "The Romance of Power" were checked by those from "Hidden Values of G-E D-c Motors." The latter picture was shown with the same projector and under the same conditions as the former. Because of the technical nature of the picture, it was decided not to repeat the procedure for the pupils in general science. Therefore, only the pupils in physics, Groups E-2 and E-5, were tested on this picture.

In both these pictures there was but little difference between the material of the first reel and that of the second reel, whereas there was considerable difference between the two pictures. Therefore, one method of presentation was used for the first reel and an alternate procedure for the second reel. The methods of presentation were reversed for the equivalent group. This arrangement made it possible to compare the results of two equivalent groups on one reel and to confirm these conclusions with the results of the reversed procedures used for the other reel.

Separate controls for sound and picture projection allowed the pictures to be shown at exactly the same rate to all groups, with or without sound at the will of the experimenter. The use of the same machine for the film alone, for the film-teacher lecture, and for the talking-picture presentations made for perfect duplication of the mechanical conditions, such as rate of projection, flicker, amount of illumination, and clarity of the picture.

During the projection of these pictures the teacher's comments

were directed toward explaining technical points, elaborating on the major ideas of the picture, or directing attention to certain features of the picture which were thought to be especially significant. The teacher lectured from notes made during a preliminary showing of the picture and from the continuity. While the lecturer avoided duplicating the regular sound accompaniment, there was no attempt to avoid discussing the subjects covered in the talking part of the picture. The principal difference between the sound and the teacher accompaniments was that the teacher avoided making comments which were not illustrated in the film and tried to explain details found in the picture more fully than was done on the screen.

Preliminary studies of tests suitable for motion pictures indicated that completion tests using words and diagrams were superior to the essay test or the true-false test so far as constructing, scoring, reliability, and objectivity were concerned. Each question was aimed to test some significant aspect of the subject of the picture. The questions were not intended to determine whether the pupil secured his information through the visual images of the motion picture, through verbal memory of the continuity, or from the comments of the teacher. Which of these influences was the most valuable must be determined by discovering which method of presentation gave the most comprehension.

The names of the pictures used, the type of test, the number of questions, the number of pupils used in determining the reliability of the test, and the estimated reliability are given in Table I. The reliability was determined by applying the Spearman-Brown formula for predicting the reliability of a lengthened test to the correlation coefficient for the odd-numbered and the even-numbered questions. The probable error was taken from Holzinger's *Statistical Tables for Students in Education and Psychology*.¹

The effectiveness of oral accompaniments to films was determined by comparing the influence of the teacher's comments with those of the regular sound accompaniment. This influence can be determined by comparing the results of these two methods of presentation with the results from showing the film alone. For example, the

¹ Karl J. Holzinger, *Statistical Tables for Students in Education and Psychology*, pp. 60-69. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1925.

results of showing the film "The Romance of Power" without captions or comments (Method 1) gave median scores of 8.8 for the first reel and 9.3 for the second reel. When this picture was presented as a silent film without captions but with oral comments by the teacher (Method 2), the median scores were 13.3 for the first reel and 14.3 for the second reel. Undoubtedly, the addition of the teacher's comments are effective in making the picture more comprehensible to the pupils.

TABLE I

NAMES OF FILMS USED, TYPES OF TESTS USED, NUMBER OF QUESTIONS
NUMBER OF PUPILS TESTED, AND ESTIMATED
RELIABILITY OF EACH TEST

Name of Film	Type of Test	Number of Questions	Number of Pupils	Reliability and Probable Error
Wizardry of Wireless.....	Diagram	25	57	.81 ± .03
	Completion	54	44	.93 ± .01
Power Transformers.....	Completion	54	44	.85 ± .03
The Romance of Power.....	Completion	40	140	.71 ± .01
Hidden Values in G-E D-c Motors.....	Completion	40	44	.75 ± .05

Similarly, the tests for the talking-picture presentation (Method 5) gave a median score of 14.0 for the first reel and a median score of 13.6 for the second reel. A comparison of these results with those for the presentations without captions or comments (Method 1) indicates that the talking picture was also effective in making the picture more comprehensible to the pupils. However, there is no significant difference between the results of the presentation of the talking picture (Method 5) and those of the presentation as a silent picture without captions but with oral comments by the teacher (Method 2).

The results of these experiments are summarized in Table II, which shows the names of the pictures used, the method of presenting each reel, and the median score for each group.

The answers to the tests were also analyzed by the use of a diagnostic chart.¹ This chart contains a row for each pupil and a column for each question. If an X is placed in the proper column after the

¹ Henry C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, p. 557. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1931.

pupil's name for each question that is answered wrong and an *O* for each question omitted, it is possible to determine at a glance what each pupil did on the test and what the group did on each question. Such an analysis calls attention to individual differences which might be overlooked or neutralized in the average. This analysis for the film presented with oral comments by the teacher and for the

TABLE II
RESULTS OF VARIOUS METHODS OF PRESENTING EDUCATIONAL FILMS

Name of Film	Reel Number	Method of Presentation*	Group Used	Median Score in Test
Wizardry of Wireless	{ 1 and 2	Motion picture lecture (4)	E-2	36.0
	{ 1 and 2	Motion picture (3)	E-5	33.0
Power Transformers	{ 1 and 2	Motion picture (3)	E-2	29.5
	{ 1 and 2	Motion picture lecture (4)	E-5	35.5
The Romance of Power	{ 1	Talking picture (5)	M	14.0
	{ 1	Film lecture (2)	W	13.3
	{ 2	Talking picture (5)	W	13.6
	{ 2	Film lecture (2)	M	14.3
	{ 1	Talking picture (5)	E-2	16.5
	{ 1	Film lecture (2)	E-5	14.5
	{ 2	Talking picture (5)	E-5	15.5
	{ 2	Film lecture (2)	E-2	15.5
	{ 1	Film alone (1)	R	8.8
	{ 2	Film alone (1)	R	9.3
Hidden Values in G-E D-c Motors	{ 1	Talking picture (5)	E-5	11.0
	{ 1	Film lecture (2)	E-2	11.3
	{ 2	Talking picture (5)	E-2	9.0
	{ 2	Film lecture (2)	E-5	9.3

* The figures appearing in parentheses in this column represent the method of presentation as described earlier.

talking-picture presentation showed that, when the teacher talked, the pupils did much better on questions which dealt with technical or unfamiliar terms and names, such as "shadoof," "treadmill," "galley," and "Steinmetz." This result suggests that one of the disadvantages of talking pictures for educational purposes may be the difficulty of learning new words through hearing them pronounced by a strange voice. In a talking picture there is no possibility of stopping to study a new word as can be done in the motion-picture caption. Here it may not be out of place to record a comment of some of the pupils in connection with the picture

"Hidden Values in G-E D-c Motors"; they complained of the use of abbreviated terms, such as "Types B.D. and C.D. motors." Not being familiar with the technical distinction between the two types of motors, the pupils found it difficult to follow the discussion of the speaker, who used these terms often.

Since the writer was unable to find the same picture in the form both of a motion picture and of a talking picture and was unable to secure permission to omit the captions on a motion picture, it was impossible to make direct comparisons of the relative effectiveness of motion pictures and talking pictures. Even if the captions had been removed, it would not have been fair to compare the pictures because the motion picture was assembled with the expectation that the captions were to be used, whereas the talking picture was made with the definite intention of having oral accompaniment. However, it is possible to arrive at some conclusions as to the relative effectiveness by indirect comparisons. Through the experiments comparing the effectiveness of the presentation of a talking picture (Method 5) with the effectiveness of the presentation of a silent film accompanied by the oral comments of the teacher (Method 2), one arrives at the conclusion that there is little difference between the results of these two forms of presentation. Since the factor of the teacher's comments is common to both the presentation of a silent film with oral comments but without captions (Method 2) and to the presentation of a silent film with captions and with oral comments (Method 4), it may be argued that there could be little difference between these two presentations. To argue otherwise would mean that the printed captions interfere with the comprehension of the picture. This evidence obviously indicates that the talking picture has little, if any, advantage over the ordinary silent motion picture accompanied by well-planned comments by the teacher.

CONCLUSIONS

It should be noted that the conclusions of this study are based on comparisons of pictures of the expository or science type. The conclusions should not be applied to pictures involving dialogue or dramatic action. It is believed that, with this limitation, the following conclusions are valid and reliable.

1. Verbal accompaniments increase the comprehension over that secured from the film without caption or comment, but it is immaterial whether it is the teacher or the speaker in the talking picture who comments.

2. Both carefully-planned comments of a descriptive character and directions calling attention to particular terms or features increase the pupils' *immediate* understanding and memory of a picture.

3. If the added comments of a teacher produce any *permanent* effect on the pupils' comprehension of a silent picture with captions, completion tests are measures too coarse to show this effect. Probably the effects of such comments are largely temporary increases in comprehension aiding memory of the picture itself rather than increases in the comprehension of the topic illustrated by the picture.

4. The functions of verbal accompaniments to films are to furnish the word symbols which may be used to represent the more concrete experiences which the films portray and to direct attention to the important terms or features of the pictures.

5. Silent motion pictures accompanied by the teacher's comments are superior to both talking pictures and silent pictures with respect to the learning of new technical words or unfamiliar names.

6. The main function of films is to make instruction concrete in order to avoid verbalism. On the other hand, since most thinking is done with the aid of words, one of the main functions of education is to supply verbal symbols for concrete experiences. The ultimate aim of this goal of education is the development of the ability to carry on abstract thinking. From this standpoint, either verbalism without experience or experience without vocabulary means an incomplete education. The results of this study indicate that, so far as instructional values in science are involved, the printed caption accompanied by the oral comments of the teacher forms visual images and oral stimuli which are at least as effective as the impressions formed by the talking picture.

THE EVOLUTION OF THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL IN NEW YORK CITY

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East Side Continuation School, New York City

BACKGROUND OF THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL

Although the continuation school is a recent development in educational history, it can trace its ancestry to the beginnings of the Industrial Revolution. The part-time school of the early nineteenth century actually continued the dull and uninspiring schooling from which the individual was cut off either because of long and inhuman factory hours or because it was felt that even the limited amount of "leisure" might profitably be invested in so-called "cultural pursuits." The schooling, such as it was, was given in no organized way, in no particular place, and at no particular time. The home, the Sunday school, or the club served well enough as the place of contact with the three R's or with the advanced subjects of a general nature. "Course of study" and "method of instruction" were euphonious abstractions rather than definite terms of description. The student personnel ranged from child slaves of six or seven to mature men who sought escape from the devastating industrialism that rapidly tended to annihilate them spiritually, if not physically.

To this sort of indefinite and desultory part-time training may be traced directly some of the formal trade and industrial-education schemes which in turn replaced the earlier apprentice training. The continuation school of today, however, has no such direct lineage. While it has its roots in the past, its actual growth and fructification are comparatively modern phenomena. This statement is particularly true if we keep in mind that it is a school for young workers, that it is a compulsory school, and that it is a part-time day school.

In Germany and other countries where stratification is still a social factor, the development of the continuation school took on a definite aspect of extension training. In America this school has

from the beginning been regarded as a tryout, guidance, finding, or opportunity school offering a rich and varied content for the purpose of developing, first, civic intelligence and, second, vocational intelligence.

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

The continuation-school movement in the United States may be said to have had its inception as a significant by-product of the work of the famous Douglas Commission that investigated thoroughly and exhaustively the matter of industrial education in Massachusetts a little over a quarter-century ago. In 1906 this commission opened our eyes to the wasted years of youth between the ages of fourteen and sixteen.¹ The commission did not specifically recommend the establishment of compulsory continuation schools, but the findings yielded some significant by-products.

In 1911, only five years after the report had been made public, the state of Wisconsin took the lead and passed the first state-wide compulsory continuation-school law in this country. In 1915 Pennsylvania passed a similar law. Massachusetts and New York did not at that time sponsor such legislation, but they passed permissive laws which enabled local units to set up continuation schools for young workers between the ages of fourteen and eighteen.

Not satisfied with the slow and halting local developments, the present American Vocational Association, first known as the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education and later as the National Society for Vocational Education, from 1906 on kept up a tireless and effective barrage of vocational-education propaganda on a national scale, which finally culminated in the passage of the famous Smith-Hughes Act in 1917. A staunch ally, if not a prime mover, in this effort was the American Federation of Labor. One of the salient provisions of this far-sighted federal legislation reads as follows:

SECTION 11. . . . that at least one-third of the sum appropriated to any state for the salaries of teachers of trade, home economics, and industrial subjects shall, if expended, be applied to part-time schools or classes for workers

¹ *Report of the Commission on Industrial and Technical Education, April, 1906.* Submitted to the Senate and House of Representatives, Massachusetts, in Accordance with Resolve Approved May 24, 1905. Educational Reprints, No. 1. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1906.

over fourteen years of age who have entered upon employment, and such subjects in a part-time school or class may mean any subject given to enlarge the civic or vocational intelligence of such workers over fourteen and less than eighteen years of age; that such part-time schools or classes shall provide for not less than 144 hours of classroom instruction per year; . . .

This provision is chiefly responsible for the rapid growth of the compulsory continuation-school movement. Whereas in 1911 there was but one state-wide law, a decade later twenty states had enacted similar laws. Today about three-fifths of all the states in the Union, including Puerto Rico and Hawaii, are in line. By 1930 nearly 340,000 boys and girls between the ages of fourteen and eighteen were in attendance or on the rolls. This number is almost exactly one-half of the total enrolment in all federally aided schools giving vocational education. In 1931 a noticeable diminution in enrolment occurred on account of the scarcity of jobs for juvenile workers. In 1930 the total amount of money spent for continuation-school purposes also reached the peak. In 1930 the amount of money spent was \$5,465,513.22. In 1931 the amount shrank somewhat to \$5,303,081.95.¹

THE SITUATION IN NEW YORK STATE

Since 1910 the state of New York has had experience with some sort of compulsory part-time continuation-school education. In 1910 children between the ages of fourteen and sixteen who had left elementary school before graduation were supposed to attend compulsory evening schools in order to complete their education. As might have been foreseen, this requirement proved highly unsatisfactory from every point of view. In 1913 the Wilmot Law attempted a remedy for the intolerable situation. This law gave permission to local communities to pass regulations compelling children of fourteen to sixteen years of age who had dropped out of the elementary school before graduation to attend school during the day for four hours a week. The only community in the state to take advantage of this law was New York City. The situation in the state as a whole remained unaltered.

In 1919 the Empire State took its rightful place in the educational

¹ *Fifteenth Annual Report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, 1931*, pp. 84-85, 94. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1931.

world by passing a model, state-wide, compulsory continuation-school law. At that time the commissioner of education, John H. Finley, characterized the law as the "children's charter." With minor amendments, this "charter" is the law today. Its provisions, together with interpretative regulations and intelligent and skilful administration, put the state of New York in the very front rank of educational advance and social insight. Such an outstanding achievement is not infrequently made possible through the vision, zeal, and driving force of an inspired leader. Lewis A. Wilson, assistant state commissioner for vocational and extension education, gave impetus to the idea of a compulsory continuation school. He piloted the legislation through several stormy sessions of the legislature. He nurtured it, encouraged it, developed it, and defended it bravely against hostile attacks. Organized labor and progressive industrialists made final victory possible. Today it is safe to assert that this "children's charter" is a permanent fixture in the state's educational structure.

THE CONTINUATION SCHOOL IN NEW YORK CITY

In New York City the development of compulsory continuation schools was due almost wholly to the universal dissatisfaction with the compulsory provisions of the evening-school law of 1910. Employers complained that their young workers were too tired to profit by instruction in the evening and that attendance at evening school unfitted them for good work the next day. The children did not like the evening school, which robbed them of the little fun that a hard day's work allowed them. They stayed away in spite of the compulsory provisions of the law. The educational authorities and the attendance officers found themselves helpless in a situation in which less than 20 per cent of the estimated number of possible attendants enrolled and less than 10 per cent actually attended.

In the face of this unorganized but effective protest against a harsh and obnoxious law, something had to be done. Thanks to the foresight, resourcefulness, and initiative of the present director of continuation and evening schools, Morris E. Siegel, and the whole-hearted support of his superiors, agitation for the modification of the law was set afoot. Intelligent citizens, organized workers, unselfish

employers, experienced social workers, farsighted educators, and many others rallied to the support of the under-privileged young worker. The result was the passage of the permissive law already mentioned, the Wilmot Law of 1913. Under the direction and supervision of the board of education, continuation-school classes were then organized and operated in stores, shops, or factories of employers who showed a willingness to co-operate.

At best, this program was bound to be a limited, though commendable, application of a law which was itself inadequate. The lethargic indifference of the community at large was the silent brake on the wheel of progress. Attendance could not be enforced except through the use of moral suasion with the employer and, through him, with the child. It was not easy to show the employer the dollar-and-cents value of educating his employees on his time and in his space, and the enforcing machinery of compulsory attendance was not geared up to the newest of school inventions. Still the work moved steadily forward, making more friends than enemies as it conquered one difficulty after another.

Then came the war and the post-war elation. Along with other welfare movements, the continuation school came into undreamed-of blessings. It dawned on us that a country worth dying for is worth living for. The ordinary human being, young and old, was rediscovered; his social worth was reappraised at a flattering level. General-welfare laws were advanced everywhere. The unceasing demand for material and industrial efficiency was paralleled by an insistent demand for individual and social efficiency. Hence, the need of vocational training for young workers within the restrictive boundaries of child-labor laws asserted itself vigorously. Affluence of a sort came to many people, who voiced their demands for the bigger and better in many spheres. "More and better schools," was the cry.

The additional schooling that the elders sought for their adolescent children was to be found only in the traditional high school, which was already groaning under its unprecedented load of registration. The educational diet provided therein was distasteful to many a son and daughter, and distressing educational dyspepsia inevitably ensued. Nevertheless, the demand for more schooling was unabated. A cure had to be found. While others asked for pallia-

tives, wise educators, taking advantage of the moment, insisted on permanent remedial measures which were calculated to produce individually satisfying and socially useful results. Among these measures the continuation-school movement loomed large.

An unlooked-for and elusive force released by the war period was the menacing crime wave. To the shame and chagrin of our best citizens, it was found that the daily line-up in police headquarters was recruited to an alarming extent from the younger set. Juvenile delinquency was on the increase. To stem the rampant tide of youthful depredation, organized social agencies countered with the best they had in the way of equipment and man-power. Their efforts were in vain. They centered their attack on cure rather than on prevention. Prevention is peculiarly the province of the school, particularly the continuation school, for the continuation school alone deals with the young person in a man-to-man fashion at the most critical period of his life.

Was the continuation school ready at the time to accept the challenge? Could it shoulder the responsibility? Was it in a position to discharge a social obligation that was literally forced upon it? Not then.

The experience gained in the administration of part-time and vocational classes conducted more or less informally in private establishments after 1913, under the permissive regulations of the Wilmot Law, greatly fortified the present director of continuation schools in his perennial request for the establishment of continuation schools as an integral part of the school system. In 1917 the first public compulsory continuation school was organized in the lower East Side of Manhattan in New York City. This step anticipated the state compulsory continuation-school law by two years. From this small but auspicious beginning, and since 1919 with the unfailing assistance of state authority, the continuation-school system has grown in power and in influence. In spite of recurring attacks from uninformed, selfish, or mischievous sources, this growth has been steadily maintained. The stature of the continuation schools has risen both materially and spiritually.

The physical growth of the continuation-school system in New York City is clearly shown in the tables given later in this article.

In less than ten years, from 1917 to 1926, the number of continuation schools in New York City grew from one to fifteen. In 1926 it was considered prudent to consolidate the gains made rather than to expand too rapidly. The date of opening of each of the operating continuation schools is shown in the following list.

East Side Continuation School.....	February 1, 1917
Brooklyn Continuation School ¹	May 24, 1919
West Side Continuation School.....	February 1, 1920
Staten Island Continuation School.....	April 12, 1920
Queens Continuation School.....	September 13, 1920
Bronx Continuation School.....	October 3, 1921
East New York Continuation School.....	May 15, 1922
Williamsburg Continuation School.....	October 1, 1923
Central Printing Trades Continuation School.....	March 30, 1925
Jamaica Continuation School.....	April 12, 1925
Central Commercial Continuation School...	May 13, 1925
Brooklyn Girls Continuation School.....	September 1, 1925
Brooklyn Boys Continuation School.....	September 14, 1925
Central Building Trades Continuation School.....	September 24, 1925
Central Needle Trades Continuation School.	February 15, 1926
Harlem Continuation School.....	September 8, 1926

The establishment of the four central continuation schools should be particularly mentioned, as they represent a new departure in school administration. Each of these schools specializes in one industry. All the training is on a trade-extension basis and is given for the sole purpose of furthering the best interests of the children in their chosen fields. To these schools are transferred from the general continuation schools all pupils who are employed in, or guided into, a specific vocation.

Because the central school is a highly specialized institution, it must be distinguished from the general continuation school, which is the main guidance center. It is the general continuation school which provides the numerous tryout possibilities and the many guidance services. Usually the pupil remains in the general school until he is about sixteen years old. At the age of sixteen or seven-

¹ The original Brooklyn Continuation School was later divided into two separate schools: Brooklyn Boys Continuation School and Brooklyn Girls Continuation School.

teen, when he reaches the age acceptable to industry, he receives his trade-extension training in the central school.

Definite training of this type brings the central schools into close contact with the industries they serve. Industry, represented by organized capital and organized labor, has shown its interest by co-operating actively with the educational authorities. Each of the schools has an advisory board, which helps plan the curriculum and lay out the shops in accordance with approved trade practice. The point of view of such a board is of invaluable assistance to the successful administration of the undertaking. Not infrequently the em-

TABLE I
PROGRESS MADE IN CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN NEW YORK CITY
IN THE DECADE 1920-30*

	1920	1925	1930
Number of schools.....	5	14	15
Average daily registration.....	5,296	43,335	68,950
Number of teachers, principals, and clerks.....	100	384	619
Amount of teachers' salaries....	\$143,348.95	\$887,979.13	\$1,974,207.46
Cost of supplies.....	\$ 20,341.95	\$ 95,067.68	\$ 130,937.58
Average daily attendance.....	930	3,786	5,925
Aggregate number of hours of at- tendance per year.....	594,748	5,743,042	8,806,921
Cost per capita per annum.....	\$35.20	\$25.96	\$35.53
Cost per capita per hour.....	\$0.28	\$0.17	\$0.24
Value of plant.....	\$112,262.61	\$1,029,381.70	\$2,238,673.13†

* These figures were supplied and checked by the auditor's office of the Board of Education.

† This amount does not include two new buildings in process of construction.

ployers' association and the trade union concerned manifest their interest in a more concrete fashion. For example, the Central Printing Trades Continuation School received a "loan" of equipment which is valued at about \$300,000. Similar loans and services are at the call of other central schools.

The progress made during the past decade is indicated in Table I. In 1918 only twenty-five teachers, administrators, and clerks were employed in these schools. By 1930 this figure had jumped to 619. Only 2,548 pupils were registered in 1918, whereas the average daily register in 1930 was 68,950. The peak registration was in 1929, when the number was 69,235. From then on, there has been a progressive decrease caused by the hard times and by united appeals to

children and their parents to continue the all-day schooling. Falling registers were not permitted to continue. Before long the schools took up the slack. The schools have thrown their facilities open to two new groups which were not previously served; full-time instruction is now given to unemployed adults (to the number of about five thousand) and to full-fledged industrial high-school boys and girls (numbering about three thousand). With these additions, not only are the schools running to capacity, but the numbers entering are threatening to overwhelm the facilities. Soon the number of teachers will mount, curriculums will be modified, and facilities will be increased—all this in the face of economy measures which cannot be ignored.

The most striking improvement that the continuation schools are showing of late is in the gradual replacement of old equipment and of old, condemned buildings by new equipment and by modern buildings of the most approved kind. Right now a building costing two million dollars is nearing completion in the Bronx, and a similar structure is going up in the Borough of Richmond. As soon as the financial stringency eases up, the replacement program will undoubtedly be expanded.

Table II is a detailed extension of Table I. Reading down each column, one cannot fail to be impressed with the steady forward march on the several fronts of continuation-school advance. Note the steady increase in the teaching personnel, teachers' salaries, attendance, registration, etc. Teachers in the continuation schools are paid in accordance with the provisions of the city high-school schedule, although the requirements for positions in the continuation schools are higher and the working day is longer. In order to get figures which are comparable with those obtaining in other parts of the school system, the writer found it necessary to reduce final costs to an hourly basis for the reason that continuation-school pupils attend school only four hours a week. An analysis of these figures shows rather glaring dips in the costs per capita for the years 1924 to 1927. That was a period of "indecent" overcrowding of pupils. Mounting registration seems to have overtaken the ability of the fiscal authorities to cope with the situation. Since 1927 there has been a steady increase in the per capita cost of instruction because of

TABLE II
DETAILED FIGURES SHOWING THE GROWTH OF THE CONTINUATION SCHOOLS IN
NEW YORK CITY FROM 1918 TO 1930*

Year	Number of Schools	Average Daily Registration	Number of Teachers	Amount of Teachers' Salaries	Cost of Supplies	Average Daily Attendance	Aggregate Number of Hours of Attend- ance for Year	Cost per Capita per Annum	Cost per Capita per Hour
1918.....	1	2,548	25	\$ 25,000.00†	91,728	\$18.84	\$0.07
1919.....	2	3,556	35	6,274.71	333	594,748	35.20	0.28
1920.....	5	5,206	52	143,348.95	\$ 20,341.95	930	1,201,252	38.56	0.28
1921.....	6	13,228	88	326,793.41	20,579.82	924	1,679,136	43.06	0.29
1922.....	7	15,863	121	410,842.44	71,917.49	1,121	2,315,866	36.05	0.18
1923.....	8	17,792	148	484,901.62	88,637.55	1,595	3,563,425	28.77	0.17
1924.....	8	28,956	166	574,106.52	84,923.11	2,290	5,743,042	25.96	0.17
1925.....	14	43,335	384	887,979.13	95,007.68	3,786	6,634,197	20.66	0.18
1926.....	15	48,750	513	1,107,889.91	93,840.11	4,354	7,650,847	27.70	0.21
1927.....	15	57,475	526	1,393,562.49	80,142.90	4,994	8,368,201	33.11	0.22
1928.....	15	62,705	603	1,639,228.95	81,346.07	5,518	8,866,921‡	35.53	0.24
1929.....	15	60,235	579	1,702,207.30	87,173.84	5,866			
1930.....	15	68,950†	619	1,974,207.46	130,937.58	5,925†			

* Most of the figures in this table were supplied and checked by the auditor's office of the Board of Education

† This amount was borrowed from the Evening-School Fund.

‡ This figure includes unemployed adults enrolled in the schools.

mandatory increases in teachers' salaries and persistent efforts to reduce the size of instruction groups. Will the cost continue to mount? If it does, the citizens of New York will not be alarmed, for they seem to have learned long ago that they are securing full value for the money expended.

When attempt is made to estimate the spiritual, as distinguished from the material, results of the growth and development of the continuation-school system, measures must be relied on which are not precise and which cannot be displayed in tabular form. It is indeed difficult to set up such measures, and still more difficult to interpret them impartially. For the present, at least, let us content ourselves with a hurried consideration of one set of measures that have some standing in the educational community. Has the continuation-school system definite aims, purposes, objectives? Are these objectives approved by those qualified to judge? Do they appeal to the citizenry? The propriety and limitations of self-appraisal are too obvious to warrant the question: To what extent are these objectives realized?

In discharging its function to the community, the continuation school is guided by at least two sets of objectives: general and specific. About a dozen years ago the National Education Association sponsored a set of general objectives of secondary-school training to which most educators subscribe, namely, training for health and safety, worthy home membership, mastery of tools, vocational and economic efficiency, faithful citizenship, wise use of leisure, and ethical character. These are supposed to be the basic outcomes of teaching in any good school. In so far as the continuation school places itself in the category of "good" schools, it operates along these general lines. However, it adds or stresses one other objective: guidance, with its indispensable complement, follow-up work.

When this broad vision is narrowed to a sharper focus, the objectives are differently but more definitely expressed as follows: (1) physical, mental, moral, and social unfolding of the individual; (2) exploratory or finding possibilities that might evolve into happy careers; (3) avocational interests and purposes; (4) stimulation of interests in things industrial, commercial, scientific, and the like; (5) intelligent and comprehensive guidance with complete follow-up;

(6) development of an intelligent—not only frugal—consumer interest; (7) stressing of habits and attitudes as well as skills; (8) vocational or trade-extension training whenever advisable; and (9) personal integration for social adjustment and assimilation.

The nub, or center, of the problem is still to be reached. We must get at the pupil more specifically, with objectives which are more specific than those listed. The continuation school, more than any other school organization, deals only with the individual pupil, notwithstanding the fact that it deals with huge numbers. In every case, and without exception, it is the individual young worker and his peculiar needs which determine the specific objective or set of objectives. This statement does not mean that the continuation school is sailing without chart or compass. On the contrary, it sails with confidence and with full steam ahead, but the direction it takes is determined by each boy or girl worker between the ages of fourteen and seventeen. Under these circumstances objectives must remain flexible and adaptable, and the means whereby these objectives may be realized must be varied and interesting.

In general, the goal of the many courses in the continuation school is to help the pupil "to choose and prepare for an occupation wisely, to enter upon that occupation with little waste of effort and time, and to advance in that occupation as rapidly and as efficiently as possible."¹ The courses are roughly divided into tryout, trade-preparatory, and trade-extension activities. The first two of these are usually found in the neighborhood, or general, continuation school, while the central continuation school is peculiarly adapted to the skilled administration of the third. The objective may sound too much like a bread-and-butter proposition. In reality, a great deal more is aimed at. Every good continuation school presents an impressive scene in which most of the following activities are well in the foreground:

1. Physical and mental testing, including aptitude testing.
2. Guidance in its most comprehensive meaning.
3. Giving information about occupations and life's stern problems.

¹ *Circular of Information and Course of Study for Continuation Schools*, p. 2. New York: Board of Education, 1929.

4. Placing pupils in suitable jobs and following them up.
5. Giving vocational training.
6. Teaching subjects closely related to vocational problems.
7. Teaching such subjects as economics, civics, and industrial hygiene.
8. Planned co-ordination with parents, employers, and others who are interested in the child's well-being.
9. Supervision on the job, with the advice and consent of the employer.
10. Inculcation of ideals and attitudes of sound character and intelligent citizenship.

In each school the program is administered by a competent staff consisting of the principal, administrative assistants, vocational and educational counselors, placement counselors, and a carefully selected corps of teachers, all of whom are encouraged in many ways to demonstrate their several abilities in a spirit of freedom, harmony, and co-operation.

The continuation-school system as a whole is administered by a director, who is also in charge of all evening-school activities. The director is functionally responsible to one of the associate superintendents of schools. Immediately under the director are an assistant director, a supervisor of industrial education, and a specialized clerical staff.

Thus is completed the story of what has been accomplished so far in the continuation schools of New York City. That there is more to be done will be readily and cheerfully admitted by all who are privileged to toil in behalf of the adolescent worker. The project is young and vigorous. The possibility for wholesome growth in the future is promising.

THE CURRICULUM OFFERINGS IN CERTAIN TYPES OF PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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OBJECT OF THE STUDY

In the study reported in this article a survey was made of the curriculum offerings of certain types of private secondary schools located in various sections of the United States. The object of the study was fourfold: to discover the aims of the schools, to discover what curriculums are offered, to analyze the content of the curriculums offered, and to evaluate these curriculums in terms of the schools' objectives. The comparatively few published studies of the private secondary school have been concerned with the content of the curriculum or with the efficiency of the private school as a secondary institution. The main objective of this investigation was to analyze the content of the curriculums in terms of the schools' objectives in order to determine whether the offerings are adequate for the fulfilment of the aims.

INFORMATION ON SOURCES AND GROUPING OF SCHOOLS

The 1930-31 catalogues of 112 private secondary schools, located in New England, the Middle Atlantic, the southern, the central, and the western states, were used as the source of the data which form the basis of this study. No one type of school is concentrated in one particular region.

The method of investigation used has its limitations. One may wrongly interpret the statements concerning aims and curriculums. Again, one has no means of checking changes which may have been made since the catalogues were issued. While this method may not produce results as accurate as those secured by the personal interview or the questionnaire, it permits one to draw conclusions regarding types.

The 112 schools were divided into five groups: military, non-mili-

tary, non-denominational, denominational, and coeducational. Only boys' schools and coeducational schools were selected as representative of the five types of institutions. The requirement of military drill for all pupils and the employment of military routine were the criteria which determined what schools should be grouped as military schools. Those schools which were listed as denominational schools in Sargent's handbook¹ were considered as belonging to the denominational group. Classifying the 112 schools under the five heads resulted in the following distribution: twenty-six military schools, fifty-eight non-military schools, sixty-four non-denominational schools, twenty denominational schools, and twenty-eight coeducational schools. The fact that some individual schools were classified in more than one group explains the excess of the sum of these numbers (196) over the number of schools represented in the investigation.

The catalogues of the schools in each group were examined for any statements of objectives. The various statements were analyzed and grouped under four general headings, which seemed to cover adequately all objectives mentioned in the catalogues. Information regarding types of curriculums and their contents was obtained by means of a study of the descriptions of courses or of the outlines listing the subjects offered in the various types of curriculums. For the purpose of making comparisons, the grouping of the types of curriculums under general titles was necessary, since no uniformity in the titles used to designate the various curriculums was found to exist.

COMPARISONS OF THE GROUPS

Aims.—The non-military, the non-denominational, and the denominational schools, as shown in Table I, emphasize college preparation as the objective of secondary education, while the military schools stress a twofold aim, namely, college preparation and business preparation. Preparation for college and for life appears to be equally emphasized by all but the military group, while the coeducational group leads all others in stressing general development and culture. The task of formulating definite objectives appears to be

¹ Porter Sargent, *A Handbook of Private Schools for Boys and Girls: An Annual Survey*. Boston: Porter Sargent, 1929 (thirteenth edition).

somewhat neglected among the coeducational schools, since 21.4 per cent of these schools do not definitely explain their aims in their catalogues. This comparison of the aims of the various types of schools leads to the conclusion that all types except the coeducational are influenced by the traditional conception of the secondary school as a college-preparatory school.

Number of curriculums.—As is indicated by Table II, the coeducational schools lead the other types in the number of different curriculums offered. This larger offering is perhaps due to the fact that

TABLE I
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 112 PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS TYPES
ACCORDING TO AIMS STATED IN CATALOGUES

Aim	Military Schools	Non- military Schools	Non- denomi- national Schools	Denomi- national Schools	Coeduca- tional Schools
College preparation.....	26.9	56.9	50.0	40.0	14.3
College and business preparation...	50.0	10.3	20.3	30.0	3.6
College and life preparation....	11.5	20.7	17.2	20.0	21.4
General development and cul- ture.....	11.5	12.1	12.5	10.0	39.3
No statement of aims.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	21.4
Total.....	99.9	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

schools of this type profess to stress the aim of general development and culture. Evidently some of the coeducational schools are attempting to meet the modern demand which has been placed on secondary schools. However, there is a tendency on the part of the schools of all types to offer only one curriculum, since the one-curriculum schools form the largest group in each classification. This statement is particularly true of the non-military, the non-denominational, and the denominational institutions; more than 50 per cent of the schools of each of these types belong to the one-curriculum group. The large percentage of one-curriculum schools may be the result of the persistence of the old belief that private secondary schools exist primarily to prepare pupils for college.

Content of curriculums.—The traditional academic subjects offered by the various groups are shown in Table III. This table shows that English, history, mathematics, and science are offered by 100 per

cent of the schools of each type. The variation in the traditional academic offering is found in the foreign-language field. The co-educational schools lead by two in the number of foreign languages offered. The fact that some of the coeducational schools are spon-

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 112 PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS TYPES
ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF CURRICULUMS OFFERED

Number of Curriculums	Military Schools	Non-military Schools	Non-denomi- national Schools	Denomina- tional Schools	Coeducational Schools
8.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
7.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.1
6.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
5.....	7.7	0.0	1.6	5.0	7.1
4.....	15.4	5.2	9.4	5.0	7.1
3.....	26.9	8.6	15.6	10.0	21.4
2.....	19.2	19.0	17.2	25.0	14.3
1.....	30.8	67.2	56.2	55.0	35.7
Total....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	99.9
Median..	2.5	1	1	1	2.5

TABLE III

PERCENTAGES OF 112 PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS TYPES OFFERING
COURSES IN TRADITIONAL ACADEMIC SUBJECTS

Subject	Military Schools	Non-military Schools	Non-denomina- tional Schools	Denomina- tional Schools	Coeducational Schools
Latin.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	96.4
Greek.....	23.1	41.4	28.1	60.0	14.3
French.....	96.2	100.0	98.4	100.0	75.0
Spanish.....	100.0	53.4	65.6	75.0	53.5
German.....	50.0	79.3	70.3	70.0	46.4
Italian.....	0.0	1.7	1.4	0.0	3.6
Norse.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
Swedish.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
English.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
History.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Mathematics.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Science.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

sored by persons of Scandinavian extraction probably accounts for this offering. The most frequent offerings of languages are Latin and French, followed by Spanish, German, and Greek. The percentage of the denominational schools offering Greek is larger than the corresponding percentage in any other group.

A comparison of the offerings of the non-traditional academic subjects, as given in Table IV, shows that the coeducational schools lead the other types, not only in the number of subjects offered, but

TABLE IV
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF 112 PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS TYPES
ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF NON-TRADITIONAL ACADEMIC
SUBJECTS OFFERED

Number of Subjects	Military Schools	Non-military Schools	Non-denominational Schools	Denominational Schools	Coeducational Schools
8.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
7.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
6.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.6
5.....	0.0	5.2	6.2	0.0	10.7
4.....	3.8	6.9	4.7	5.0	17.9
3.....	23.1	24.1	20.3	35.0	35.6
2.....	26.9	27.6	26.6	30.0	10.7
1.....	34.6	20.7	25.0	25.0	17.9
0.....	11.6	15.5	17.2	5.0	0.0
Total....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Median..	2	2	2	2	3

TABLE V
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF VARIOUS TYPES HAVING
BUSINESS PREPARATION AS AN OBJECTIVE ACCORDING TO
NUMBER OF COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS OFFERED

Number of Subjects	Military Schools	Non-military Schools	Non-denominational Schools	Denominational Schools	Coeducational Schools
8.....	7.7	0.0	7.7	0.0	100.0
7.....	7.7	16.7	7.7	16.6	0.0
6.....	7.7	0.0	0.0	16.6	0.0
5.....	23.1	33.3	30.7	16.6	0.0
4.....	15.4	0.0	7.7	16.6	0.0
3.....	15.4	0.0	7.7	16.6	0.0
2.....	7.7	0.0	0.0	16.6	0.0
1.....	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
0.....	15.4	50.0	38.5	0.0	0.0
Total....	100.1	100.0	100.0	99.6	100.0
Median..	5	5	5	4.5

also in the number of schools which offer the non-traditional subjects. An attempt to realize broader and more general aims may account for the larger offering made in this field by the coeducational schools. The offerings of the schools of the other types are confined

largely to three subjects, although the percentages of these schools offering non-traditional subjects range from 82.8 to 95.0. Again, the influence of college-entrance requirements on the curriculum organization of these schools is apparent.

The military, the non-denominational, and the coeducational schools, as indicated in Table V, lead in the number of commercial subjects offered. The denominational and the coeducational groups are the only two groups which present a commercial offering in 100 per cent of the schools. In the military group, which stresses business preparation, only 84.7 per cent of the schools offer commercial subjects, while only half of the non-military schools present an offering in this field. These facts indicate that only the denominational and the coeducational schools as a group have made any considerable provision for business preparation and that some of the schools in the other groups make no attempt to offer business training.

CONCLUSIONS

A summary of this study of the aims, the number of curriculums, and the content of the curriculums of private secondary schools of various types seems to justify the following conclusions.

1. There is a lack of uniformity of aims among schools of the same type as well as among schools of various types.
2. The predominant aim of the private schools as a group is college preparation.
3. Most private schools organize their curriculums around the traditional academic subjects, and little importance is attached to the non-traditional academic subjects. The private-school offering is determined largely by college-entrance requirements.
4. The private schools do not approach agreement on the extent to which various academic subjects should be taught. The variation in the traditional academic subjects lies in the foreign-language field. The coeducational schools offer the widest range of subjects in this field, perhaps because of control by particular racial groups.
5. As a result of a broader and a more general aim, the curriculums of the coeducational schools give more emphasis to the non-traditional subjects than does the curriculum of any other type of school.

6. A variation in the commercial offering exists among schools having business preparation as an aim. There is an evident need for study to determine what offering of commercial subjects will prepare efficiently for the business world.

7. Judged by the aims stated and the offerings, the coeducational schools have been influenced more by the modern idea of education than have private secondary schools of any other type.

In the early period of American history private schools had a definite place in society and a particular function to perform. With the establishment of public high schools, the place of private schools in the American educational program became less important. The existence of the modern public high schools, with their efficient organizations capable of preparing the pupils for college and for the various activities of life, raises the question: Can the private schools justify themselves under present conditions? The private schools can only justify their existence when they perform a function which the public institutions cannot perform.

Only as the private schools co-operate in a scientific study to determine what their function shall be in the modern educational program and what curriculum organization shall be adopted in order to perform effectively that function, can the private schools justify their existence. A step has been taken in this direction by the Secondary Education Board in its analysis of the curriculums of private secondary schools.¹ In the interest of American education this work should be continued until the function of the private schools is definitely established.

¹ *Report of a Study of the Secondary Curriculum*. Milton, Massachusetts: Secondary Education Board, 1932. Pp. 240.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY- SCHOOL INSTRUCTION¹

III. THE SUBJECT FIELDS—CONTINUED

LEONARD V. KOOS AND COLLABORATORS

This third and final list of selected references on secondary-school instruction contains items dealing with the subject fields not represented in the list published in the February *School Review*, namely, industrial and vocational arts, agriculture, home economics, commercial subjects, music, art, and physical education. These are the fields often, but with diminishing fitness, referred to as "non-academic" or "special" subjects. The present list, like the first and second, follows a definition of "instruction" which includes its three main aspects of (1) curriculum, (2) methods of teaching and study, and (3) supervision.

INDUSTRIAL AND VOCATIONAL ARTS

HOMER J. SMITH

University of Minnesota

147. BAWDEN, WILLIAM T. (Chairman). *Standards of Attainment in Industrial-Arts Teaching*. (Progress Report of the Committee, as Presented at the New York Convention, December 12, 1931.) Topeka, Kansas: Industrial-Arts Section, American Vocational Association (C. M. Miller, Secretary, State Board for Vocational Education), 1931. Pp. 32.

Presents committee organization, technique of the co-operative study, excellent statement of industrial-arts objectives, and lists of *doing* and *knowing* units in woodworking, sheet-metal work, electricity, automobile mechanics, printing, and mechanical drawing.

148. BEDELL, EARL L. "The General-Shop Idea," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXI (July, 1932), 205-10.

Discusses social demand, organization, content, and procedure of general-shop courses. Details of processes, operations, jobs, demonstrations, standards, and references in several industrial fields are given.

¹ The December issue of the *School Review* contains a prospectus of the complete cycle of twenty lists of selected references, with the names of the specialists preparing them, being published in this journal and the *Elementary School Journal*.

149. BYRN, MARSHALL (Chairman). *Industrial Arts Monograph on General Shop and Household Mechanics: A Report of the Research Committee of the Michigan Industrial Education Society*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Michigan State Board of Control for Vocational Education, 1932. Pp. 34.
Gives practical suggestions on changing standard woodworking shops to the newer *general* type. Discusses the advantages, necessary teacher preparation, attainment of objectives, and organization. Layouts for schools of three sizes, lists of equipment, and selected textbooks and references are given.
150. FRYKLUND, VERNE C. "Technique for Securing Instructional Order," *Industrial Education Magazine*, XXXIII (May, 1932), 286-88.
A follow-up of trade-analysis procedure and of the work of the American Vocational Association's Committee on Standards in Industrial Arts. Learning and teaching units, once discovered, must be given appropriate order. Fryklund presents a definite technique for obtaining instructional order of a rather permanent nature. Significance not restricted to the field of industrial teaching.
151. HAYNES, MERRITT W. "How To Describe Materials Used in Shop Subjects," *Industrial Education Magazine*, XXXIV (November, 1932), 94-96.
Gives suggestions of valuable informational content for general and vocational courses. Discusses recognition properties and working properties of materials, common tests, basic and fabricated materials. Interesting and comprehensive keys are shown for lumber, paper, and metals as examples of description technique.
152. MAYS, ARTHUR B. (Associate Editor). *Education* (Industrial Arts Number), Vol. LII, No. 10 (June, 1932). Boston: Palmer Co.
Contains fourteen articles by able writers in the special field. Philosophy, objectives, problems, and criticisms are given consideration. Status of the work and of teacher preparation are treated. Emphasis on general shop, consumer values, and occupational information.
153. METZ, JOHN J. (Editor). *Bruce's 1932 School Shop Annual*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. 184.
Tells status of industrial arts and vocational education in all the states and possessions and in the Canadian provinces. Describes activities in selected cities. Gives suggestions for shop-planning and includes illustrations in wood, metal, electricity, drafting, automobile mechanics, printing, and general shops. Lists of equipment and supplies, with directory of manufacturing and sales firms, are supplied.
154. PROSSER, CHARLES A. "Vocational Advisement in a Changing Economic World," *American Vocational Association News Bulletin*, VII (November, 1932), 46-52.
Seven pages of closely knit fact, philosophy, and suggestion in keeping with the title. Discusses changing jobs, shifting workers, unemployment, confusion, and

discouragement. Suggestions on how to help youth understand themselves and modern employment conditions are given.

155. SCHRIMSHAW, STEWARD. *Apprenticeship*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1932. Pp. xvi+254.

A rather comprehensive treatise dealing with the fundamental philosophy on which the development of apprenticeship must proceed.

156. SMITH, HOMER J. "The Training of Youth for a Socialized Industry," *Western Arts Association Bulletin*, No. 5, pp. 94-97. Indianapolis, Indiana: Western Arts Association, 1932.

An abstract of an address given at the 1932 convention of the Western Arts Association. Sets forth in note form a complete program of industrial education. Gives the province and the practices of industrial instruction in elementary schools and junior and senior high schools; in junior and senior colleges and graduate schools; in preparatory trade schools and part-time and evening schools. Stresses versatility as contrasted with specialization.

157. VANDERCOOK, D. C. "How One High School Expanded Its Service to the Community," *Trained Men*, XII (Autumn, 1932), 58-60, 64.

A readable story of the origin and development of correspondence instruction as a part of the curriculum at Benton Harbor, Michigan.

158. WARNER, WILLIAM E. (Chairman). "The Terminological Investigation of Professional and Scientific Terms from the Literature of Vocational and Practical-Arts Education," *Western Arts Association Bulletin*, No. 5, pp. 104-43. Indianapolis, Indiana: Western Arts Association, 1932.

Discusses techniques of study, etymology, contemporary usage, confusion, distinctions, and critical views. A master list of more than one thousand terms is shown. A research project in standardization.

AGRICULTURE

SHERMAN DICKINSON
University of Missouri

159. DICKINSON, SHERMAN. "Summarization of a Farm Shop Inquiry," *Agricultural Education*, IV (April, 1932), 170.

Gives the results of a nation-wide survey on certain important phases of the farm-shop activity in vocational agriculture.

160. FIELD, ALBERT M. "The Long-Time Program of Farm Practice," *Agricultural Education*, IV (May, 1932), 181-82.

A discussion of possibilities and practices in planning and conducting long-time farm-practice programs in vocational agriculture.

161. FITZGERALD, N. E. "Improvable Practices as the Basis for Evening Courses in Agriculture," *Agricultural Education*, IV (June, 1932), 200-201.
Offers a definition of improvable practices and arguments for their use as guides in teaching.
162. FLEENOR, B. H. *Adult Education in Agriculture*. Topeka, Kansas: State Board for Vocational Education and Division of Extension, Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science (Manhattan), 1932. Pp. 114.
A study of the practices used and results secured in evening-school instruction by teachers of vocational agriculture. Presents a comprehensive and accurate picture of the situation based on data secured from 847 evening schools in 21 states.
163. GETMAN, ARTHUR K. "Foresight in Farming," *Agricultural Education*, IV (May, 1932), 183.
Emphasizes the importance of foresight to the farmer and offers suggestions for its development in our pupils.
164. GETMAN, ARTHUR K. "What Price Experience?" *Agricultural Education*, V (July, 1932), 3-4.
Comments on the value of experience in teaching, various factors which may exert influence being given consideration.
165. HAMLIN, H. M. "Vocational Agriculture Discovers the Human Mind," *Agricultural Education*, IV (June, 1932), 202-3.
A critique of some current psychology with regard to the character of the mind, with suggestions for corrective reading.
166. HAMMONDS, CARSIE. "A Plan for Classifying and Filing Bulletins," *Agricultural Education*, V (October, 1932), 58-59.
Describes a modification of the Dewey decimal system adapted to filing agricultural bulletins.
167. LINKE, JOHN A. "Past, Present and Future of F. F. A.," *Agricultural Education*, V (October, 1932), 60-62.
Outlines the history, present status, advantages, and future possibilities of the organization of Future Farmers of America.
168. MYERS, W. I. "Trends in Farm Management," *Agricultural Education*, V (August, 1932), 19.
A brief discussion of four factors having to do with the relative profitableness of farms.
169. ROBERTS, ROY W. "A Further Study in Individual Instruction," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXV (April-May, 1932), 261-66.
A study to determine whether the individual method of instruction in vocational agriculture may be used with the same efficiency as the group method.

170. ROEHL, L. M. "Vocational Agriculture in Rural High Schools," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXI (May, 1932), 158-62.
Deals with the set-up and the objectives of courses in farm shop.
171. SASMAN, LOUIS M. "Supervised Practice in Farming," *Agricultural Education*, V (September, 1932), 37-38.
Describes underlying principles which should be considered in a farm-practice program.
172. SCHMIDT, G. A. "Educational Procedures in Agricultural Evening Classes," *Agricultural Education*, IV (May, 1932), 186-87.
Discusses the "informing," "instructing," and "conference" procedures in evening-class work.
173. STEWART, R. M. "Small Foxes Spoil the Vines," *Agricultural Education*, V (September, 1932), 35-36.
Suggestions to new teachers—and to experienced ones—pointing out certain factors making for success in the profession.
174. STIMSON, RUFUS W. "Evening Unit Courses in Massachusetts," *Agricultural Education*, V (August, 1932), 22-23.
A description of an unconventional type of evening school which has proved effective in Massachusetts.
175. SUTHERLAND, S. S. "Problem Teaching in Vocational Agriculture," *Agricultural Education*, IV (May, 1932), 179-80.
One of a series of articles dealing with problem teaching and the set-up for teaching agriculture, including selection and organization of content. Discusses sources of problems, products of the method, and securing understanding and thinking.
176. THOMSON, E. H. "In Buying a Farm," *Agricultural Education*, V (October, 1932), 53, 59.
Offers timely and practical suggestions for consideration of persons interested in purchasing farm property.
177. WINDER, M. S. "Equality of Vocational Opportunity and Respect," *Agricultural Education*, IV (June, 1932), 195-96.
A plea for educational opportunity for boys in rural communities.

HOME ECONOMICS

CLARA M. BROWN

University of Minnesota

178. ADAMS, WALDO L. "Cafeteria Problems in Rural Schools," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (July, 1932), 595-601.
Describes a study conducted in Elkhart County, Indiana, indicating the value of the cafeteria to the school. Suggests ways of handling many problems and

points out need for more adequate preparation of home-economics teachers for this responsibility.

179. BADGLEY, ILMA L., and OTHERS. *The Department of Home Economics*. Oakland, California: University High School, 1932. Pp. 62.
A handbook that should prove of value to those engaged in the work of training teachers of home economics at the high-school level.
180. BROWN, VIRGINIA. "An Experiment in Teaching Child Care," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (September, 1932), 798-99.
Explains how a baby, borrowed from an orphanage for one month, served to motivate work in child development in a West Virginia high school, while the baby made better-than-normal growth.
181. COON, BEULAH I. "The Home-Economics Curriculum and the Depression," *Home Economics News*, III (August, 1932), 151-52.
Offers sane suggestions with regard to the contributions which can be expected from home economics toward meeting home and community problems, without danger of exploiting either teacher or pupils.
182. DAVISON, LUCILLE. "Applying Health Teaching in the School Lunch Room," *Practical Home Economics*, X (June, 1932), 202-3.
Explains the interesting plan used in Garfield High School at Akron, Ohio, and reports results.
183. GEHRKE, BERTHA. "Homemaking in the Junior High School, Winnetka, Illinois," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (June, 1932), 515-18.
Outlines the reorganized home-making course in Winnetka, Illinois, and describes how the work is planned and credit determined for the group. Presents the individual problems on which pupils work.
184. MCGINNIS, ESTHER (Editor). *Home Economics and Education for Family Life*. Washington: American Home Economics Association, 1932. Pp. 58.
Contains reports of the conferences on education for family life held by Anna E. Richardson during 1929-30 and a chapter by the editor on teaching this work in elementary and secondary schools.
185. NOFSKER, JULIA F. "Home Economics Objectives as Shown in a Survey of Educational Literature," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (April, 1932), 353-64.
Classifies statements of objectives found in educational literature covering period 1920-30.
186. PEEK, LILLIAN, and OTHERS. *The Teaching of Homemaking*. Texas Public Schools Bulletin No. 302. Bulletin of State Department of Education,

Vol. VIII, No. 5. Austin, Texas: State Department of Education, 1932. Pp. 282.

A suggestive syllabus for courses in home-making offered to girls and to boys, with emphasis on pupils' problems and procedures which may help in solving them. Part II deals with courses in secondary schools; Part III, with courses for boys.

187. SELL, IVA I., and BROWN, CLARA M. "A Study of the Individual Assignment versus the Class Method of Instruction in a Ninth-Grade Clothing Class," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (July, 1932), 621-25.
Describes an experimental study with a below-average group, which showed results somewhat in favor of ordinary method of instruction.
188. TURNER, MARCIA E. "Finding and Using Source Material in the Teaching of Home Relationship," *Home Economics News*, III (June, 1932), 111-12.
Suggests literature commonly found in school libraries that affords excellent reference material for classes in home relationships.
189. TURNER, MARCIA E. "Scheduling Time and Work in Food Classes," *Practical Home Economics*, X (September, 1932), 294, 302-3.
Offers suggestions for developing speed and good management in a fifty-five-minute period with seventh-grade pupils.
190. VAN DUZER, ADELAIDE L. "Making Food Budgets for Real Families," *Home Economics News*, III (May, 1932), 95, 100.
Describes a plan in which a Cleveland junior high school co-operated with the local charity organization in setting up order lists and menus to provide adequate food for families with low incomes.
191. WAMPLE, LETTA M. "An Emergency Lunch Program," *Practical Home Economics*, X (July, 1932), 230.
Describes method used to insure that undernourished children secured well-balanced lunches.
192. WESTFALL, MARTHA, and ADAMS, JOSEPHINE. "General Results of Emergency Lunches from the Nutritional Standpoint," *Practical Home Economics*, X (September, 1932), 280, 298.
Describes the results of serving free lunches to undernourished children in New York City in terms of gains in weight, improved health, and improved social behavior.
193. WINCHELL, CORA M., and OTHERS. "Revaluations in Home Economics Education," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIV (May, 1932), 418-30.
A teacher trainer, a supervisor of a large city school system, and two classroom teachers in a small junior high school describe attempts that are being made to offer courses that meet present needs.

COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS¹

FREDERICK J. WEERSING

University of Southern California

194. BLACKSTONE, E. G. "Essential Steps in Constructing Commercial Tests," *Journal of Business Education*, VII (April, 1932), 9-10.
Outlines the common faults of tests and suggests methods for constructing better tests.
195. CURTIS, N. B. "General Business Training in Private Schools," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (October, 1932) 23-24, 33.
A brief discussion of the recent waning influence of private business colleges, followed by a plea for general-business education for advanced pupils as a means of fulfilling a genuine need.
196. CUSHMAN, C. L. "Social Responsibilities of Commercial Education," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (September, 1932), 9-10.
A plea for greater emphasis on the social-business subjects.
197. HAYNES, BENJAMIN R. "Elementary Business Training in the Public Junior High Schools of the United States," *Journal of Business Education*, VII (June, 1932), 11-12, 32.
A condensed report of a nation-wide survey of aims, curriculum organization, course content, pupil enrolment, and teacher qualifications, based on questionnaire returns.
198. LESLIE, LOUIS A. "A Report of the International Congress on Commercial Education at London, England," *American Shorthand Teacher*, XIII (October, 1932), 47-50.
A brief summary of addresses and resolutions presented at the International Congress on Commercial Education held July 25-29, 1932.
199. LOMAX, PAUL S., and NEUNER, JOHN J. W. *Problems of Teaching Business Arithmetic: A Classroom Manual of Practical Helps for Teachers of This Subject in Public and Private Secondary Schools, Junior Colleges, and Teacher-training Institutions*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932. Pp. x+184.
One of a series of "classroom manuals of practical help for teachers."
200. MANNING, FLORENCE MYRTLE. "Junior College Secretarial Courses," *American Shorthand Teacher*, XIII (November, 1932), 89-92.
A discussion of a variety of positions open to the well-trained junior-college secretarial graduate, with special reference to the curriculum offered by the Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, California.

¹ See also Item 82 in the list of selected references published in the February *School Review*.

201. MEYER, GRACE M. "Commercial Credit and College Entrance," *Journal of Business Education*, VII (June, 1932), 19-20, 32.
Summary of practices in 150 colleges and universities based on a study of their catalogues.
202. MORELAND, PAUL A. "Commercial Education in Canada," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (October, 1932), 17-18.
A brief sketch of the history and present organization of commercial education in Canada at various educational levels.
203. NICHOLS, F. G. "A National Research Program," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (October, 1932), 9-10, 20, 26.
Enumerates major and minor problems in business education which demand research. Based on a committee report on "Obligations and Position of Business Education in Our Economic Order," prepared for the National Association of Commercial Teacher-training Institutions.
204. RICE, LOUIS A. "New Jersey Commercial Teachers," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (October, 1932), 25-26.
A questionnaire study of the training, experience, and salaries of 804 of a total of 880 commercial teachers in the state.
205. SHIELDS, H. G. "Status of Junior College Business Education," *Junior College Journal*, II (May, 1932), 435-42.
Based on questionnaire replies from 242 institutions and catalogues from 295 institutions.
206. SHIELDS, H. G. "The Abolition of Economic Illiteracy," *American Shorthand Teacher*, XIII (November, 1932), 96-98.
A discussion of common economic fallacies and means of abolishing them by extending economic education to all levels of schooling.
207. SMITH, HAROLD H. "Diagnostic Testing and Remedial Teaching," *Journal of Business Education*, VIII (September, 1932), 11-12; (October, 1932), 11-12.
Points out the need for improved diagnostic testing as a guide to remedial teaching in typewriting.
208. TONNE, HERBERT A., and TONNE, M. HENRIETTE. *Social-Business Education in the Secondary Schools*. New York: New York University Press Book Store, 1932. Pp. 288.
The first book to appear specifically relating to the "socializing" trend in business education. Takes up aims, content, and methods in the informational business subjects.

MUSIC

ANNE E. PIERCE

University of Iowa

209. BUTCHER, FRANK C. *Music Activities in a Boys' Preparatory School*. New York: National Bureau for the Advancement of Music (45 West Forty-fifth Street). Pp. 14.
Gives a brief account of the courses offered, the talent found in the school, the reaction of the pupils to music activities, and plans for development of the work.
210. CAIN, NOBLE. *Choral Music and Its Practice*. New York: M. Witmark & Sons, 1932. Pp. x+146.
Problems of choruses are treated from the standpoint of organization, administration, testing and treatment of voices, balance of parts, selection and interpretation of numbers, and arrangement of programs. A graded and classified list of compositions for a *cappella* singing is given.
211. FARNSWORTH, PAUL R. "Musical Talent and the Left Hand," *School Music*, XXXII (September-October, 1932), 11.
Deals with the question whether promising pupils have a tendency to favor one hand more than the other in instrumental performance.
212. FARNSWORTH, PAUL R. "Psychology and Music," *School Music*, XXXII (November-December, 1932), 3-4.
A discussion of the reliability and the validity of tests devised to measure musical talent.
213. HARLEY, ALEXANDER M., and ASTELL, LOUIS A. "Music Appreciation through Visual Aids," *Music Supervisors Journal*, XIX (November, 1932), 20-21.
A description of different types of visual-aid materials for use in music instruction.
214. JONES, ARCHIE N., and NEMZEK, CLAUDE L. "Music in Public Schools of Minnesota," *School Music*, XXXII (May-June, 1932), 14, 16.
An article based on 176 replies to a questionnaire. Gives reports concerning subjects other than music taught by music teachers, grade contacts of music teachers, music courses offered, assembly singing, credit for private music lessons, general music activities, and equipment.
215. KITTLE, J. LESLIE. "Music Education and Scientific Research," *Music Supervisors Journal*, XVIII (May, 1932), 37-39.
Report of a study to discover the vocabulary necessary for an intelligent understanding of the musical content of magazines and newspapers.
216. KWALWASSER, JACOB. *Problems in Public School Music*. New York: M. Witmark & Sons, 1932. Pp. viii+160.
A criticism of objectives generally accepted and methods and materials commonly used in music education. Reforms which the author deems necessary are suggested.

217. WHITLEY, MARY T. "A Comparison of the Seashore and the Kwalwasser-Dykema Music Tests," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIII (May, 1932), 731-51.
Considers construction, recording and scoring, what the two tests measure, experience in giving the tests, content, and reliability.
218. *Yearbook of the Music Supervisors National Conference, Twenty-fifth Year, 1932*. Chicago: Music Supervisors National Conference (64 East Jackson Boulevard), 1932. Pp. 464.
A compilation of papers, addresses, and discussions of the meeting of the music supervisors held in Cleveland April 3-8, 1932. Problems of administration and the teaching of vocal, instrumental, and theoretical music receive attention.

ART

W. G. WHITFORD

219. BIRD, MILTON H. *A Study in Aesthetics*. Harvard Monographs in Education, No. 11. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1932, Pp. 118.
Presents a review of ancient and modern theories of aesthetics. Summarizes the many research studies completed in the field of aesthetics, particularly in the division of tests and measurements. Data from a test in drawing for children are given.
220. COLLINS, M. ROSE, and RILEY, OLIVE L. *Art Appreciation for Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1931. Pp. xiv+334.
A manual for teachers and pupils of secondary schools. Discusses the systematic development of appreciation of art in the school, home, and community. Treats the subjects of design, interior decoration, theater arts, city-planning, dress design, lettering, printing, posters, pottery, textiles, metal-work, architecture, sculpture, painting, graphic art, and modern art.
221. D'AMICO, VICTOR. *Theatre Art* (Books on the Arts). Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1931. Pp. 218.
A general, appreciational discussion of the art of the theater for laymen and students. Subjects covered: history and evolution of stage art, the artist and the theater, stage design, color, the stage model, lighting, modern stages, costume, masks, the school theater, and stage business. A book for high-school and college students and for the average individual who desires to understand and enjoy the art of the theater.
222. GARDNER, HELEN. *Understanding the Arts*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1932. Pp. viii+336.
An approach to the appreciation of art primarily for high-school and normal-school students. Discusses the principles of art as a basis for aesthetic evaluation and judgment. Subjects covered: architecture, garden art, city-planning, painting, sculpture, art of the book, weaving and pottery, art in everyday life.

223. HALPIN, LAWRENCE M. *Art in the Classroom*. New York: Isaac Pitman & Sons, 1932. Pp. 124.
Discusses various phases of subject matter, such as drawing and sketching, design, color, lettering, materials, methods, and elements and principles of art. Presents material for elementary, junior, and senior high schools.
224. KNIFFIN, HERBERT. *Masks* (Books on the Arts). Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1931. Pp. 140.
Presents a general, appreciational treatise on masks, mask-making, and their use. Shows how masks have interested people of all times. Discusses mask-making as a practical school craft in connection with theater art. Profusely illustrated.
225. OPDYKE, GEORGE H. *Art and Nature Appreciation*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xviii+564.
Approaches art appreciation not by the usual system of "art history and criticism" but by training the eye to observe and by developing in the reader ability to judge and enjoy art directly through personal analysis, rather than indirectly through the analysis of others. Both nature and the visual arts are treated aesthetically in a simple and an interesting way. Maintains that art is a language which all may read.
226. TANNAHILL, SALLIE B. *Fine Arts for Public-School Administrators*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. xvi+146.
Deals with painting, sculpture, architecture, textiles, pottery, and the aesthetic phases of the graphic, theater, costume, household, industrial, and civic arts in Grades I through XII.
227. WADE, A. CECIL. *Modern Lettering from A to Z*. New York: Isaac Pitman & Sons, 1932. Pp. 160.
Discusses the importance and value of lettering in all commercial and decorative work. Gives a basic and thorough presentation of the essentials of lettering of all kinds. Profusely illustrated with examples of lettering of many styles.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION

L. B. SHARP

228. *The Administration of the School Health Program*. Report of the Subcommittee on the Administration of the School Health Program, A. J. Stoddard, Chairman. Section III, Education and Training, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xii+42.
This report is not restricted to secondary-school level. Considers scope of school health service, administrative control, organization, personnel, cost, and the health program.

229. BRAMMELL, P. ROY. "Looking Ahead in Secondary-School Athletics," *School Review*, XL (December, 1932), 735-50.

A report of a study, made as a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education, relating to intramural and interscholastic athletics. Points out that one of the most significant trends in administration is toward natural unity of interscholastic athletics, intramural athletics, physical education, and health.

230. CALKINS, E. DANA. *Aims and Methods in School Athletics*. New York: Wingate Memorial Foundation, 1932. Pp. 482.

Considers such matters as aims in school athletics, health, athletics for special groups, tests and measurements, and the teaching of various sports.

231. CLEVETT, MELVIN A. "An Experiment in Physical Education Activities Related to the Teaching of Honesty and Motor Skills," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (March, 1932), 121-27.

The experiment demonstrated, within limits, that honesty as a form of behavior can be influenced by physical-education activities over a period of three months without sacrificing progress in the development of skills.

232. COMMITTEE ON ATHLETICS FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN. "Monograph on Athletics for Girls and Women," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (October, 1932), 79-110.

A report of an investigation of the important phases of girls' athletics by the Committee on Athletics for Girls and Women of the American Physical Education Association.

233. COMMITTEE ON CURRICULUM RESEARCH. "A Study of Relative Values of Thirty Important Activities in the Physical Education Program for Boys," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, II (March, 1931), 115-74.

A determination of the relative values of 30 activities for boys. Activities were rated by 372 physical-education specialists from 19 states.

234. HEMPHILL, FAY. "Information Tests in Health and Physical Education for High School Boys," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (December, 1932), 83-96.

Discusses the construction of information tests in major athletic activities, minor sports, health as related to physical education, self-defense activities, and recreational sports.

235. HOTCHKISS, A. S. "A Method of Combining Scores of Mass Athletics and Field Day Events," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, III (May, 1932), 18-23, 52, 54-57.

Reports the plan and the organization of a program for combining mass athletics, in which all pupils take part, and field-day events, in which the more proficient take part, as operated in the two upper elementary grades and the first two years of junior high school in twenty-two schools in Alabama.

236. LEE, MABEL. "A Survey of Athletic and Gymnastic Costumes Used by American Girls and Women," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (March, 1932), 5-47.
Report of a study sponsored by the publicity committee of the women's section of the American Physical Education Association. Questionnaires were sent to 650 organizations.
237. McCLOY, CHARLES HAROLD. *The Measurement of Athletic Power: Some Achievement Standards in Track and Field Athletic Events for Boys from Ten to Thirty Years of Age*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1932. Pp. xiv+178.
Sets up a scientific procedure for determining athletic quotient and measuring athletic power to aid in classification of students into physically homogeneous groups for track and field competition and for general physical-education activities.
238. MACEWAN, CHARLOTTE G., and HOWE, EUGENE C. "An Objective Method of Grading Posture," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (October, 1932), 144-57.
Describes the development of a new technique in grading posture.
239. NASH, J. B. (Chairman). "Report of the Committee on High School Administrative Standards for the Department of Physical Education," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (May, 1932), 126-29.
Opinion of the committee appointed by the American Physical Education Association on standards for secondary-school physical education.
240. SCOTT, GLADYS, and TUTTLE, W. W. "The Periodic Fluctuation in Physical Efficiency during the Menstrual Cycle," *Research Quarterly of the American Physical Education Association*, III (March, 1932), 137-44.
An experiment controlling the type of physical activity during the menstrual cycle. Physical efficiency was measured by the pulse-ratio test.
241. SMITH, L. M. "End-Results of Health and Physical Education," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, III (April, 1932), 14-15, 56-57.
Compares conditions in 1930 with those in 1920 as shown by records for 58,693 pupils fourteen or fifteen years of age in schools of Pittsburgh.
242. WILDS, ELMER H. "Interschool Contests in American High Schools," *School Review*, XL (June, 1932), 429-41.
A report based on questionnaire replies from 168 schools, which shows that athletic contests are the most prevalent of all types of contests both in the number of schools participating and in the number of pupils participating. There is no evidence that pupils are excessively overloaded.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

Education for citizenship as character education.—Education for citizenship has been the major concern of the American public schools for over a century. Leaders of public education in this country are realizing that so far we have not succeeded in this great enterprise. Professor Coe,¹ from a rich experience and a long reflection on this subject, is among those who feel that "something is lacking in present education for citizenship" (p. viii). He contends that educational leaders "know that in the United States, the homeland of universal, tax-supported, free, and compulsory schooling, we have not yet a politically educated citizenry" (p. viii). To convince other educators of the public school's failure to produce true citizens, he suggests "A Self-Test for Public-School Educators" (pp. 15-16).

Professor Coe attacks the nationalistic tendency in our education and contends that civic instruction promoted by this means is devoted to militaristic nationalism. "This book," he states, "has to do with the sovereign authority that suffuses all education that is conducted by the state" (p. ix). His objection is to "placing sovereignty in an abstract, supposedly idealistic, realm and then attributing indefinite authority to it" (p. 190). The principle he advocates for education for citizenship ought to make "citizens keenly conscious of state authority" and ought also to "produce increased participation in the activities of the sovereign state" (p. 190). Only thus will the schools enable pupils to appreciate "the great human values that are possible through law and apparently not otherwise" (p. 190). His "final test of the individual's conduct as citizen is also the final test of national policy and of law, namely: Does this conduct, policy, law express respect for persons, and does it make for fellowship among them?" (P. 191.)

To Professor Coe, two of the marks of a seasoned education for citizenship are: (1) "definite convictions as to what constitutes worth-while living. . . . Another way of saying this is that character education is one of the foundation pillars of civic education," and (2) "a dominant interest . . . in socially shared values" (pp. 12-13). "Patriotism," to him, "is an attitude toward concrete human beings; love of country is love of Jack, and Mike, and Hans, and Ole,

¹ George A. Coe, *Educating for Citizenship: The Sovereign State as Ruler and as Teacher*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932. Pp. xvi+206. \$2.00.

and Giuseppe, and all the members of their families. The *reality* of 'my country' is these persons; the finality of my country's claim upon me is the finality of the worth of these persons. The 'national interest' concerns their development and happiness, and—fundamentally—nothing else whatever" (p. 196). Consequently, "The supreme test of the patriot does not come when he faces a foreign enemy, but when he faces his own neighbors . . . as persons possessed of the same final worth that he claims for himself" (p. 199).

The main thesis of the book is that citizenship education is character education, and the author finds great hope in the recent character-education movement, which, in a true sense, is "nothing less than religious" (p. 175). The method which he advocates for citizenship education is "pupil participation" (p. 37) because training is far more effective than instruction.

Professor Coe has produced a great book of a penetrating and provocative nature. It contains food for thought for people in practically all walks of life—food for social-civic leaders, for those interested in character education, for public-school teachers, for leaders of non-state schools, for students in colleges and universities, for members of boards of education, as well as for the general intelligent citizen.

Those who are acquainted with this creative mind and ethical teacher will be delighted with this book. They will find in it not only material for thought but will be inspired to work harder toward the bringing-about of a better moral, civic, and intelligent citizenship.

The reviewer hopes that this book may be read not only by educators but also by members of boards of education and by civic and political leaders.

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Postgraduate students in high school.—In recent years there has been much interest in the reorganization of secondary schools. There have been experiments affecting both limits of the period ordinarily designated as "secondary." Both the junior high school and the junior college have found established places in discussions dealing with secondary education. It is surprising that in all this discussion the postgraduate student in high school has been entirely neglected until the publication of a recent volume.¹ This neglect is the more surprising when we find that 29,225 postgraduate students were enrolled in the high schools of the United States in the year 1929-30 and that the enrolment of such students has increased rapidly in recent years. This large number of high-school pupils represents a group whose needs cannot be overlooked by responsible school administrators.

The volume undertakes a careful study of two phases of the problem pre-

¹ Einar W. Jacobsen, *Educational Opportunities Provided for Postgraduate Students in Public High Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 523. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. vi+74. \$1.50.

sented by the postgraduate student. The first section deals with the provisions made by public high schools for postgraduate students. It is based on information secured from state departments of education, from the United States Office of Education, and from check lists sent to a random sampling of schools in all states reported as having postgraduate students. The fact is clearly brought out that postgraduate work in high school has grown up with no attention from state departments of education and little encouragement from high-school administrators. Provisions for postgraduate students are so hemmed in by regulations and restrictions that, as the author says, "although direct evidence does not show it, one examining the check lists from the schools studied realizes the fact that postgraduates are not welcomed in most of the schools studied" (p. 38).

A second division of the study concerns the traits and characteristics of postgraduate students and is based on a check list filled out by students in schools selected at random from the group offering postgraduate work. Among the findings which seem to the reviewer most significant are the following:

1. The extent to which the removal of deficiencies for college entrance has operated as a motive for return to school following graduation. (Fifty per cent of the pupils enrolled in ancient languages and 48 per cent of those taking mathematics are repeating courses.)
2. The lack of provision for the guidance of postgraduates. (Only 15 per cent of these students received any advice from school officials on their return to school.)
3. The small number of cases in which courses were provided with the needs and interests of this group in mind.

The author's recommendations based on this study deserve the thoughtful consideration of all those who share responsibility for development of the program of secondary education.

The volume is particularly timely at a period when large numbers of high-school graduates are unable to find employment or to finance attendance at institutions of higher education. Sympathetic attention to the needs of this group on the part of communities and school administrators seems to be a social obligation of the highest importance. Furthermore, provision for postgraduate students in communities which do not now support junior colleges may serve to discover the demand for an extension of secondary education and the types of advanced courses which will prove most serviceable. Jacobsen's volume will prove most helpful to all those giving serious attention to the postgraduate problem.

EDGAR G. JOHNSTON

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Directing student teachers in observation and practice.—Professor Reeves is engaged in the training of teachers for high schools. He thinks the heart and soul of this business is critical observation and critical practice teaching. In providing for this most important part of teacher training, he has developed a

guiding workbook and a textbook of standards.¹ His scheme is as follows: Assign teachers in training to the work of observing teaching activities. Give them lists of questions and exercises organized under major teaching problems, such as securing and maintaining interest, selecting and organizing subject matter, making the assignment, using drill, teaching a given subject, testing. These questions will direct the student teachers' observations and their self-criticism in practice teaching in ways which will develop their educational knowledge and judgment. To answer these questions intelligently, they will need to master the terminology and the concepts of educational method and to apply the standards of sound teaching procedure which our science has revealed. To meet these needs economically and conveniently, supply the cadets with a clearly organized and a highly concentrated manual of teaching procedures and standards. Such a manual will follow, of course, the same outline as the workbook, even to the numbering of the chapters, sections, paragraphs, and items.

Granting the acceptability of such a scheme of teacher training (and many would not grant it), how well are these materials designed to serve it? The workbook recognizes thirty-eight professional problems in discipline, motivation, teacher planning, classroom procedure, recognition of types of learning, special methods, and measurement. Each problem is developed through a page or so of questions directed toward a specific observational situation. Other questions and exercises usually follow to govern the practice teaching in a corresponding situation. Blank pages are included for student reports. The questions and exercises employ the technical vocabulary of education and involve psychological and empirical principles of teaching. The textbook does not, of course, answer many of the questions directly, since most of them bear on the concrete situation. It does attempt, however, to provide for each question enough data to make its terms and significance intelligible. Used as it is intended to be used, and supplemented by illustration, class discussion, and lectures, the book will probably perform a genuine service. The truth of that would best be determined by trial. Viewed as an independent treatment of educational method, the book is intolerably encyclopedic, assertive, and monotonous. The incessant hammering of the imperatives "shall," "should," "ought," and "must" through 550 pages is neither restful nor soul-stirring music. The book is actually a manual of reference, a catalogue of criteria, an annotated check list of educational method.

Among the matters largely ignored or ineffectively treated by this training set, crammed as it is, are the construction of large study units, pupil diagnosis, the experimental attitude, the scientific literature of education, adjustment to

¹ Charles Everard Reeves, *Standards for High School Teaching: Methods and Technique*, pp. xii+558, \$2.50; *Workbook in High School Observation and Practice Teaching To Be Accompanied by "Standards for High School Teaching,"* pp. viii+270. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1932.

individual differences, and the general interpretation of education as growth. Undoubtedly, though, one should not expect to give undergraduates in training the whole gospel of educational method in a single volume.

MATTHEW H. WILLING

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Secondary education for negroes.—In recent years few phases of education have received more attention on the part of research workers than have those dealing with the education of negroes. This attention is fortunate in view of the backwardness of the past and the present status of negro education and the lack of information concerning it.

Public education for the negro is of recent development, and the inadequacy of present facilities is attested by the lack of availability of public secondary schools, which is revealed in the study under review.¹ This investigation helps to fill a long-felt need in supplying information concerning high schools for negroes and is a timely contribution to the field of educational literature. The fact that the study is confined to one state renders it none the less valuable. On the contrary, this limitation permits of a more detailed treatment than would otherwise be possible and thus suggests the need and the method of approaching the question in other states having separate school systems.

The volume is divided into five chapters. In addition to the regular introductory matter, chapter i consists in a brief historical sketch of the development of education for negroes and a summary of other investigations bearing on the subject. In chapter ii the author presents an illuminating picture of the general development of secondary education for negroes in North Carolina and shows the present status of buildings and equipment, programs of studies, extra-curriculum activities, and the staff. He emphasizes the lack of availability of high schools in many counties and declares, in the summary of this chapter, that there is apparently no doubt that negroes will take advantage of opportunities in public secondary schools as these are made available. Characteristics, achievements, interests, and aims of pupils are the subjects of chapters iii and iv. These chapters treat personnel factors in terms of social background, mental and reading abilities, academic achievement and interests, and vocational interests and expectations of pupils. The interrelations of these factors are discussed in a way to emphasize the importance of studying pupil personnel problems as a basis for education and guidance. Chapter v is entitled "Conclusion."

Although the author seems to have made every effort to be thoroughly scientific in gathering and presenting the data, as well as fair in their interpretation, it is the opinion of the reviewer that he attempted to discuss certain important historical developments in negro life without sufficient background. This lack

¹ Hollis Moody Long, *Public Secondary Education for Negroes in North Carolina*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 529. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932. Pp. xii+116. \$1.50.

is particularly evident in sections of the introductory and the concluding chapters.

It is encouraging to note the recognition given to the possible effect of economic and cultural background factors on the quality of scholastic achievement of negro pupils. However, caution should be exercised in accepting the author's suggestion that educational offerings in secondary schools for negroes should be adjusted to conditions as they exist. While the necessity for adaptation to individual and group needs in light of the present should not be overlooked, negroes cannot be expected to fit into our changing democratic civilization unless programs of studies are based on the anticipation of an improved social and economic status.

While the book is well and interestingly written, it probably could have been improved if more of the tables had presented the data in percentages or central tendencies instead of simple frequencies—an arrangement which grouping the data into larger categories would have made possible. However, the volume is an excellent addition to the growing series of studies of educational problems of negroes in various states and should be helpful to anyone considering the question under discussion.

AMBROSE CALIVER

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A treatment of the teaching of economics.—The current situation has given a great impetus to writings concerned with the problem of economic education. A recent contribution¹ is one of the few books devoted to teaching in that field. There is a rather large fugitive literature on the teaching of economics but comparatively little in book form. This volume, which is essentially a classroom manual largely derived from secondary sources, is concerned with objectives, functions, learning problems, teaching methods and devices, measurement, and teacher preparation, with particular reference to secondary-school economics. Rather good bibliographies are appended to the twelve chapters in the book, and an extended appendix lists material for the building of a high-school library in the field.

One of the major values of the volume under consideration is that it integrates a large amount of material which is not ordinarily available to the classroom teacher of economics or to one preparing to teach. It is, however, unfortunate that to many readers the book may seem discursive and that rather large sections of it may appear to be merely a discussion of educational procedures using economics as a type case. In a book concerned with special methods in a given field, some knowledge of elementary educational psychology on the part

¹ Paul S. Lomax and Herbert A. Tonne, *Problems of Teaching Economics: A Classroom Manual of Practical Helps for Teachers of This Subject in Public and Private Secondary Schools, Collegiate Schools, and Teacher-training Institutions*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1932. Pp. viii+372. \$2.00.

of the reader may well be assumed; such an assumption makes it possible to focus attention on the central issue, which in this case is economic education.

Certain key problems in economic education are not discussed. One issue that every teacher of economics at any level of education faces is that of indoctrination. In the teaching of most of the social sciences this is a peculiar and pressing problem, and particularly so in economics. The problem of indoctrination does not occur in fields like mathematics, the physical sciences, and other studies in which the subject matter is not immediately concerned with well-guarded and personal interests. How should the economics teacher treat such problems as inflation, war debts, tariff, wage cuts, government ownership, and other issues in which a wide gap exists between the findings of professional economists and (let us say) the attitude of the press. This problem is perhaps the most puzzling of many facing the teacher of economics, and this textbook offers no guidance in these matters. If the purpose of economic education is to effect behavior change toward some particular pattern or objective, the teacher must certainly know the end sought. It is not enough to teach certain orthodox principles in the field because the limitation of a course in economics to such principles would appear deadeningly dull and unrelated to actual practices. On the other hand, if the teacher attempts to interpret economic orthodoxies in realistic terms, there is genuine danger of becoming completely critical of the current economic scene.

Despite its limitations, this book offers a starting point in the improvement of economic education, which can be brought about only by close contact and co-operation between the economist and the educationist. Certainly the problems of teaching economics are not altogether problems of teaching procedure, nor are they entirely problems of subject matter. They are much more fundamental and intricate. As an initial effort, this manual is a constructive effort to focus attention on the teaching of the subject, but it does not, after all, answer the question: What kind of economics should one teach?

H. G. SHIELDS

A treatise on guidance.—A recent book by Koos and Kefauver¹ represents another important milestone in the progress of the guidance movement. The last decade has shown an increasing recognition by secondary-school principals of the importance of guidance, but many of them see the problem through a heavy haze. This book accomplishes three important tasks: (1) It clearly defines this many-sided and difficult problem from the point of view of the secondary-school principal and teacher. (2) It provides a comprehensive survey of present practices in the more progressive schools. (3) It furnishes much valuable assistance to teachers, counselors, deans, and principals in their attempts to provide guidance for all pupils in secondary schools. The book will do much to

¹ Leonard V. Koos and Grayson N. Kefauver, *Guidance in Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xii+640. \$2.50.

dispel the cloudy indefiniteness that has too frequently been associated with guidance and will help to clarify opinion concerning the various guidance functions.

The authors see the task of guidance as including several apparently different activities. In the reports of the National Vocational Guidance Association these are usually referred to as (1) personnel records and research, or the study of individual differences; (2) individual counseling through the interview; and (3) group guidance, or orientation. The authors of the book under review use terms which are more easily understood, which are more attractive to secondary-school teachers and principals, and which more clearly describe the activities under each of these headings.

Part I deals with informing pupils about opportunities; Part II, with securing information about pupils; and Part III, with guiding the individual pupil. The analysis of each of these functions is painstaking, clear, and illuminating. The case for the guidance service is so strongly and convincingly stated that it must carry weight with secondary-school principals. The chapter on measurement as a source of information about pupils is especially well done, and it alone is worth the price of the book. The section on individual counseling contains many practical suggestions that should prove invaluable to counselors and principals, especially because of its excellent foundation in mental hygiene.

Part IV, on organizing the guidance service, is definite and specific. It presents a clear description of existing situations in progressive schools. This section may be criticized for omitting the composite type of organization of guidance, as described by Reavis, and for ignoring many excellent sources of experience and suggestions available in the files of the *Vocational Guidance Magazine*. However, in such a rapidly developing field no book can be entirely complete.

This book covers an extensive survey in a thorough and scholarly fashion. I am using it as a textbook at Harvard University, Brown University, and Boston University and have placed it in the counselors' reference libraries in every secondary school in Providence, along with such standard works as *Principles of Guidance* by Arthur J. Jones, *The Problem of Vocational Guidance* by George E. Myers, *I Find My Vocation* by Harry Dexter Kitson, *Educational and Vocational Guidance* by William Martin Proctor, and *Education as Guidance* by John M. Brewer.

RICHARD D. ALLEN

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Songs for the general music class in junior high schools.—An acceptable addition to the list of music textbooks¹ suitable for use in junior high schools has

¹ *Music of Many Lands and Peoples*. Edited by Osbourne McConathy, John W. Beattie, and Russell V. Morgan. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1932. Pp. iv+268. \$1.52.

come from the press. In general, songbooks designed for pupils at this level contain compositions by standard classical and modern composers and songs of national and folk types arranged for unison and part singing with and without accompaniments. In this respect the present book follows the traditional scheme. Its distinguishing characteristics lie in its general appearance and in the organization of songs into units of work, such as "The Pageant of Many Lands and Peoples," "Qualities of the Human Voice," "Choruses for Soprano, Alto, and Bass," "The Evolution of Four-Part Singing," "A Pageant of World History." In all, fourteen such divisions appear.

Many of the units provide opportunities for correlation with other subjects in the curriculum. For example, a linking with the social studies is indicated in "The Pageant of Many Lands and Peoples," "A Pageant of World History," "A Pageant of Early American History," and "A Pageant of Americanization." An association with foreign languages is also apparent through songs of different countries given in the original, having as well an English translation. In some cases a phonetic spelling is given to assist in the correct pronunciation of foreign words. The plan of the book, furthermore, establishes a close relation among different musical activities. Appreciation and the development of an intelligent understanding of the elements of music receive attention in the unit "Form, the Architecture of Music," while familiarity with instrumental compositions is the basis of one section. A suggested list of correlated recorded music is included, and the rhythm program is not neglected.

Throughout the book an effort to court the favor of the exponents of the unit type of organization is evident. As a result of this effort, the allocation of material may at times be questioned, for songs do not always carry out with accuracy the meaning of the topic heading. Under the unit "The Pageant of Many Lands and Peoples," one expects songs having typically national characteristics. Expectations are fulfilled in such selections as the "Japanese National Anthem," "Naples," and the "Hindu Song." Contrasted with these, however, are Godard's "Lullaby" and Mendelssohn's "Cradle Song," which do not qualify in like degree and which might more aptly fall in the unit "Choruses for Additional Programs" or "Form, the Architecture of Music." On the other hand, the song from the opera "Pinafore" by Gilbert and Sullivan, which appears in the last-named division, is more precisely descriptive of a people than the lullabies mentioned. But why did the editors see fit to suggest changing the words from "He is an Englishman" to "He is American"?

The material presented is broad in scope and is of good quality. For the most part, it shows careful consideration for the changing musical needs of the pupils for whom it is intended. Technical problems are not complicated, yet they are such as to appeal to groups of different abilities. The vocal range is generally appropriate, and the arrangements for the singing are satisfactory. Informational notes, which appear frequently, serve to arouse interest in the compositions to which they apply and also aid in their musical interpretation.

The Index is adequate. Illustrations, some of which are in color, are an attractive feature, while the washable silver-colored cover, good print and paper make this book more pleasing in appearance than the usual textbook.

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

ANNE E. PIERCE

Two new arrangements of French classics.—The pommeling of curriculums and methods, that "favorite indoor sport" of educators and education-conscious laity alike, is a far more delectable task than the job of constructive scientific revision. As a matter of fact (as the writer pointed out in a review of Smith's *French Book Two* and Friedman, Arjona, and Carvajal's *Spanish Book Two*, which appeared in the March, 1932, issue of the *School Review*), the teachers of foreign languages have deserved their share of the criticism against devitalized curriculums and stultifying instruction. It is pleasing to note, however, that no group has responded more courageously to the challenge. The reports of the Modern Foreign Language Study were a step in the right direction. The results of this study and similar investigations have not been allowed to molder in dusty archives but have been transmuted, in part at least, into improved textbooks. The books herein described¹ come under this heading. This effort, it may be said, is also being made elsewhere, notably in Canada. The *Dominion French Readers*, by Muriel A. Mackay and Alfreda E. Thompson, represent a similar attempt to use experimental data in textbook construction. The last-named books were written under the direction of Major H. B. King, principal of Kitsilano High School, Vancouver, where experimentation is now being carried on in all French classes on the relative efficacy of various teaching techniques, such as the word-list versus the sentence method.

In keeping with its policy of presenting scientific arrangements of well-known and familiar readers, the Chicago French Series is sponsoring the appearance of two novels which, while not new in content, are improved in form. The content has been adapted to a vocabulary of considerably less than fifteen hundred words and three hundred idioms selected from the first parts of the Vander Beke *French Word Book* and the Cheydleur *French Idiom List*. It is gratifying to teachers of French to be able to "place" a reader in relation to the ability of the class on a basis of experimentation and fact. The value of the Chicago series undoubtedly lies in this opportunity. The purpose is to present in an orderly gradation the content which has been found necessary for an adequate knowledge of French.

It is of advantage to consider these readers separately. The Erckmann-Chat-

¹ a) Erckmann-Chatrian, *Madame Thérèse*. Adapted and edited by Florence B. Williams, Grace Cochran, and Helen M. Eddy. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xviii+272. \$1.25.

b) Alexandre Dumas, *Les trois mousquetaires*. Adapted and edited by Marguirette Struble and Helen M. Eddy. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1932. Pp. xii+282. \$1.25.

rian classic is a "plateau" reader designed to fix the reading and grammatical knowledge gained from *Beginning French*, *Si nous lisons*, and *Pierrille*. Its place should be at the end of the first-year or the beginning of second-year high-school French. One of the novel features of this edition is its list of recommended supplementary historical readings, including both fiction and non-fiction. Footnotes are printed in English and are quite complete. The exercises consist of comprehension questions in both French and English, word and idiom studies, true-false statements, translation and pronunciation exercises. Some slight inconvenience might have been done away with had these exercises been distributed at the end of each chapter rather than in the back of the book. By no means the least interesting feature of the reader is a series of unusual and amusing woodcuts which adequately illustrate the story.

The second reader is that ever-popular tale, Dumas' *Les trois mousquetaires*. This edition has preserved all those portions of the story which are necessary to the main thread, and the material which has been deleted has been replaced by brief résumés in French. It was found necessary, of course, to adapt the vocabulary of the text within some fourteen hundred words and three hundred idioms, supplemented by a few lower-frequency words which are explained in English. The reader has been designed for use in the first semester of second-year high-school French. A contributive feature of the book is the convenient arrangement whereby the supplementary material pertinent to each chapter is placed adjacent to that chapter. For example, complete footnotes in English are placed at the bottom of each page, and exercises follow each chapter. The exercises themselves are unusually sufficient, including comprehension questions of various kinds and word studies. A comparative and genetic method of word study is utilized by which the French word is related to similar forms in Latin, English, Spanish, and German. New words occurring in the text are placed in heavy type in the margins, those appearing later in other connotations being inclosed in parentheses. Immediately preceding an excellent vocabulary there is a list of over six hundred French words similar to English in form and meaning. This book also possesses the spirited illustrations by the same artist as the illustrations in the reader previously reviewed.

While neither of these books is a radical departure from existing editions, both present several valuable teaching aids. A generous amount of supplementary material is always welcomed by the classroom teacher, and such material is furnished in these books.

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Training effective letter-writers.—The high-school graduate's need for mastery of the tools of expression is greater than ever before. A person's ability to express himself effectively is a necessary accompaniment of clear thinking and has been shown to be related to occupational success. Developing such ability by means of training in the writing of business letters is the purpose of the book

under review.¹ Teachers of business English who are struggling to bring their pupils beyond the point of mere *recognition* of acceptable English forms to the building of *habits* of good usage, teachers who are looking for instructional materials which bring the atmosphere of actual business situations into the classroom, and teachers who feel their own lack of business experience—all these will want to examine this book.

The materials, prepared for use in corporation schools and in the United Y.M.C.A. schools, are chiefly letters that have been effectively used by a large number of nationally known business firms. The organization of the book is that of nearly all books of its kind. A few chapters are devoted to such general principles of technique as planning, the use of words, and grammar and composition. Attention is then directed in turn to each of the important types of letters: the letter of application, the advertising letter, the sales letter, the collection letter, the letter of complaint, the official letter, and the social letter. One chapter is concerned with reports and technical papers.

Having been prepared for rather mature pupils, the book may be more suitable for advanced classes in high school and for junior-college classes than for early high-school classes. An attempt to adapt the book to classes of lower levels by means of a workbook unfortunately took the author into a field unfamiliar to him.

As a textbook for classes in business English, the chief weakness of the book is that it confines itself strictly to letter-writing. Many of the situations for which high-school pupils are being trained call for oral and extemporaneous expression. The tendency to neglect such training will easily be enhanced if a textbook is used which recognizes only the problem of developing the writing of business letters. Where a specialized or vocational course in letter-writing can be justified, this book will be valuable as a textbook. Its provisions for the pupil to learn to *do*, an appendix listing fifty topics for discussion, the nature of the materials presented, and the excellent treatment of letter-writing recommend the book to those interested in the problem of training pupils in self-expression.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

BLACKHURST, J. HERBERT. *Introducing Education*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1932. Pp. xiv + 320. \$2.50.

CUBBERLEY, ELLWOOD P. *An Introduction to the Study of Education*. Revised by Walter Crosby Eells. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. Pp. xx + 532. \$2.25.

¹ Ralph Leslie Johns, *Business Letters: Functions, Principles, Composition*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1932. Pp. xii + 348. \$1.40.

- DRAPER, EDGAR M., and ROBERTS, ALEXANDER C. *Study Guide in Secondary Education*. New York: Century Co., 1933. Pp. xii+152. \$1.00.
- Growth and Development of the Child: Part I, General Considerations*. Report of the Committee on Growth and Development, Kenneth D. Blackfan, Chairman. Section I, Medical Service, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. New York: Century Co., 1932. Pp. xviii+378. \$3.00.
- HAEFNER, RALPH. *The Typewriter in the Primary and Intermediate Grades: A Basic Educational Instrument for Younger Children*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932. Pp. xiv+342.
- HOLLINGWORTH, H. L. *Educational Psychology*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1933. Pp. xvi+540. \$3.00.
- The Yearbook of Education, 1933*. Lord Eustace Percy, Editor in Chief. London, England: Evans Bros., Ltd. (Montague House, Russell Square, London, W.C.). Pp. c+860.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ACREMANT, ALBERT. *Ces dames aux chapeaux verts*. With Preface, Introduction, Notes, Exercises and Vocabulary by Robert Fouré and Hélène Fouré. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1933. Pp. xii+202. \$0.80.
- American History in Verse: For Boys and Girls*. Collected and edited by Burton Stevenson. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1932. Pp. xviii+456+xxiv. \$1.32.
- FAY, CHARLES RALPH. *Elements of Economics*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932 (revised). Pp. xxiv+630. \$1.68.
- FRIEND, MATA ROMAN, and SHULTZ, HAZEL. *Junior Home Economics: Living in Our Homes*, pp. xviii+274, \$1.10; *Clothing*, pp. xx+300, \$1.10; *Food*, pp. xx+304, \$1.10. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1933.
- GRAY, MASON D., and JENKINS, THORNTON. *Latin for Today: First-Year Course*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1933 (revised). Pp. xxxii+486+74. \$1.32.
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- LOVE, CLARA M. *Dramatic Scenes from American History: For Reading and Production in Junior and Senior High Schools*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1933. Pp. xx+248.
- PASCHALL, ALMA. *Creative Expression*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1933. Pp. x+280. \$1.20.
- SMITH, DAVID EUGENE, REEVE, WILLIAM DAVID, and MORSS, EDWARD L. *Text and Tests in Plane Geometry: A Combined Textbook, Student's Workbook, and Testbook for Modern Courses*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1933. Pp. 286. \$0.88.
- VALDÉS, ARMANDO PALACIO. *José*. Edited by Juan Cano and Edith Cameron. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1932. Pp. xxiv+212. \$1.00.

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AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

- CASWELL, HOLLIS L. *Program Making in Small Elementary Schools*. Field Studies No. 1. Nashville, Tennessee: Division of Surveys and Field Studies, George Peabody College for Teachers, 1932 (revised). Pp. 78. \$0.25.
- DAVID, FLAVIUS LOUIS. "The Selection and Organization of Personnel for Curriculum Revision." Cleveland, Ohio: Curriculum Laboratory, School of Education, Western Reserve University, 1932. Pp. 56 (mimeographed). \$0.20.
- GREENE, HARRY ANDREW. *A Criterion for the Course of Study in the Mechanics of Written Composition*. Studies in Education, Vol. VIII, No. 4. Iowa City, Iowa: University of Iowa, 1933. Pp. 64.
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